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ABSTRACT

Educational accountability could be defined as reporting the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization. Although this definition of educational accountability may appear to be simple, its application is complex. The plan proposed in this booklet provides a method for applying accountability. The first section of the report traces a brief history of accountability, relates the press for accountability to concurrent developments in schools, and summarizes present State legislation regarding accountability. The second part of the booklet contains four guidelines that should undergird any plan for educational accountability. The position represented by these guidelines redefines those popular ideas which promote only a very narrow and restricted definition of accountability. The third and last section provides a practical organization for implementing accountability through the establishment of a Planning Accountability Team (PACT). This organizational arrangement provides a mechanism for professionals to work with members of the community in defining expectations for the schools, making longrange plans, and evaluating school programs. (Author/JF)

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Schools Become Accountable

by
Richard L. DeNovellis
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Foreword by
Harold G. Shane

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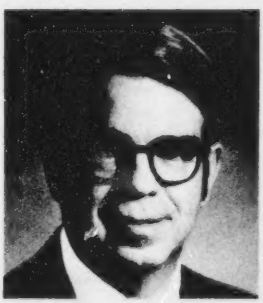

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Foreword

WHEN I FIRST became a member of the ASCD Executive Council some two years ago, the concept of accountability was deemed a critical source of issues and problems in U.S. education. I recall that shortly thereafter William M. Alexander and William Drummond prepared a challenging statement on the topic. The present monograph, *Schools Become Accountable: A PACT Approach*, was prepared during this past year as a follow-up document.

The passing months have made the topic, accountability, more rather than less timely. And ASCD is most fortunate to have the expertise and scholarship, the writing skill and background of Richard L. DeNovellis and Arthur J. Lewis devoted to a highly effective, carefully reasoned development of accountability.

Perhaps a century ago the *community* held itself to be the accountable agency insofar as schooling was concerned. In the 1920's, the so-called Testing Movement began to make the *child* accountable for norm-referenced academic performance. The 1960's saw the beginning of a powerful trend toward making the *school* the accountable factor. This is simply a euphemism for *teacher* accountability since a "school" has no identity per se, but represents, in many ways, the sum of the efforts of the members of the professional staff.

Basically, in the 1970's, *society* must become the real basis for accountability as portentous decisions are reached with regard to what constitutes equitable educational opportunity for persons of all ages. At least this is my genuinely humble opinion!

The fine document which follows sheds important light on the era of unusually rapid transition through which our culture is moving. It is provocative, useful, positive, and informative. Pro-

fessional educators, parents, and citizens concerned with education's challenges and opportunities will find that *Schools Become Accountable: A PACT Approach* is important reading.

Indiana University
Bloomington
March 1974

HAROLD G. SHANE, *President, 1973-1974*
Association for Supervision and
Curriculum Development

Introduction

THIS PUBLICATION provides a general guide for establishing an accountability plan in individual schools through the formation of a Planning Accountability Team (PACT). A description of this accountability model is found in the last section and will serve as a reference and a guide which schools can use in their local accountability efforts.

The word "accountability" is a relatively new arrival in the lexicon of the educator with a wide range of often imprecise definitions given to the term. Consequently, applying the concept of accountability to schools is proving difficult and controversial. Definitions of educational accountability derived from business and industry incorporate economic and fiscal terms such as resource allocation, cost effectiveness, and systems input and output. Instructional leaders generally reject the direct application of industrial and business models to education and prefer to define educational accountability in terms of responsible leadership and effective education for students.

Varying definitions of educational accountability reflect different attitudes toward its effect. Some view accountability as a panacea—as though the concept itself would provide solutions to problems. Others see it as a sinister threat that will undermine the humanistic aspects of education. The authors view accountability as a tool, and, as with any tool, one that can be harmful or beneficial depending upon how it is used. The purpose of this publication is to describe one way accountability can be used as a tool for the improvement of education.

The definition of educational accountability used in this publication is derived from its root meanings. The word "account" is derived from Old French *aconter*, meaning to tell. Dictionary definitions of "account" include: to consider or judge to be, to

furnish a reckoning, to give satisfactory reasons for. Definitions of accountability include: liable to be called to account, to be responsible. Definitions of account and accountability include some type of reporting or telling and imply that this reporting is in relation to some object of value or goal. Accordingly, the authors have used a relatively straightforward definition of educational accountability: *Educational accountability is reporting the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization.*

Although this definition of educational accountability may appear to be simple, its application is complex. Its use depends upon finding satisfactory answers to questions associated with four key words in the definition: accountability, reporting, goals, and realization.

1. Questions in relation to "accountability":
   Who will be held accountable?
   What will they be accountable for?
2. Questions in relation to "reporting":
   Who prepares the report?
   To whom is it given and for what purpose?
3. Questions in relation to "goals":
   What is the nature of the goals?
   Who determines the goals?
   Who agrees upon the goals?
   How can goals be assigned priorities?
   Are the goals, once stated, immutable?
4. Questions in relation to "realization":
   What is meant by realization?
   Who is going to determine the congruence between an agreed upon goal and its realization?
   What basis will be used for judging congruence?

The plan proposed in this booklet provides answers to these questions.

The first section of this volume traces a brief history of accountability, relates the press for accountability to concurrent developments in schools, and summarizes present state legislation regarding accountability. Section II contains four guidelines which should undergird any plan for educational accountability. The position represented by these guidelines redefines those popular

ideas which promote only a very narrow and restricted definition of accountability. The four guidelines are:

1. The purpose of maintaining an educational accountability program is to improve the quality of education.

2. Any person or group influencing the quality or nature of educational experiences should be accountable to the affected children, parents, community, and to the larger society.

3. Although accountability is related to the products of education, accountability should be measured in terms of the input and the process, as well as the products of education.

4. Schools, teachers, and others should be held accountable for objectives in the affective and psychomotor realms as well as in the cognitive.

The third and last section provides a practical organization for implementing accountability through the establishment of a Planning Accountability Team (PACT). This organizational arrangement provides a mechanism for professionals to work with members of the community in defining expectations for the schools, making long-range plans, and evaluating school programs. One consequence of increased public influence on the schools can be increased public confidence in the schools. The final result may then be a system of public education which is more responsive to the needs of the people—both individually and collectively.

SECTION I
The Current Press for Accountability

THE CURRENT PRESS for accountability has developed steadily since the mid 60's when public officials used the term in spelling out a policy position. According to Leon Lessinger, demands for accountability for the use of federal money resulted from poor academic performance of minority children, inconclusive results of federal compensatory programs, and accelerating increase in costs.[1] The language used to define accountability reflected the increased tendency to use industrial models and management systems to control the flow of federal and state money. Subsequent definitions of accountability have emphasized different facets of the educational process, and consequently have produced their own small centers of confusion and controversy. For example, definitions of accountability given by E. B. Nyquist,[2] J. W. Porter,[3] and Leon Lessinger [4] accent very different ideas about the concept of accountability. According to their definitions, accountability for the public school system is associated with such variable concepts as measurable objectives, responsibility, evaluation, basic skills, cooperation, fiscal management, planning, resources, and budgeting.

Variations in definition are a reflection, in part, of differing

[1] Leon M. Lessinger. "Engineering Accountability for Results in Public Education." In: Leon M. Lessinger and Ralph W. Tyler, editors. *Accountability in Education*. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1971.

[2] E. B. Nyquist. "Measuring Purposes and Effectiveness." In: Leon M. Lessinger and Ralph W. Tyler, editors. *Accountability in Education*. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1971. p. 24.

[3] J. W. Porter. "The Future of Accountability." Paper presented at the proceedings of the Conference on Educational Accountability at Princeton, New Jersey, 1971.

[4] Leon M. Lessinger and Ralph W. Tyler, editors. *Accountability in Education*. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1971.

purposes for accountability—these, in turn, produce pressures for different emphases for accountability in schools. The range of purposes can be characterized by sketching the history of three terms—"program accountability," "fiscal accountability," and "instructional accountability." Program accountability refers to comprehensive program evaluation, as for example in federal programs such as Title I or Title VII; while fiscal accountability refers to stringent planning and accounting for monies provided to school districts. In contrast, instructional accountability, while heavily influenced by the developments associated with program and fiscal accountability, originates primarily with educators and others who are dissatisfied with the educational system. They charge that schools are failing to provide students with the abilities necessary to cope with the future.

Program Accountability

One of the roots of the present trend toward program accountability was the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965. Since approximately five billion dollars a year was provided to various compensatory programs under this act, firm guidelines were established for evaluation components. However, considerable dissatisfaction existed with the reports which were submitted from most federal projects. For example, the Miller Report,[5] which was published in 1967, indicated that in the first year of Title III proposals evaluation was the weakest element of the programs.

In an attempt to institute a "program accountability" which would encourage a more effective evaluation of federal projects, the Bilingual Education section of the ESEA was amended in 1967.[6] This amendment included the following provisions: (a) objectives must be stated in terms of desired student performance; (b) a school system must recognize its own capabilities and deficiencies and seek to utilize appropriate technical assistance in an effort to develop and operate an effective program; and (c) all projects must provide for an independent educational accomplishment audit of the project.

[5] Cited in paper by S. Kruger. "Implications of Accountability for Program Evaluation." Presented at the Invitational Conference on Measurement in Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, April 1970.

[6] Educational Resource Information Center. *Research in Education*. ED 057916 Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse, April 1972.

Fiscal Accountability

The historical source of fiscal accountability is obscure—any attempt to pinpoint specific causes for its emergence would be an oversimplification. However, its genesis is related to program accountability, public demands, and limited resources. Dissatisfaction over the result of evaluations of ESEA projects caused program officials to demand more and better accounting for the money which was being given by the federal government to the local school districts. For example, billions of dollars had been given to programs for the disadvantaged during the early 60's. Unfortunately, program evaluations did not provide specific data to justify these expenditures; consequently, program officials began demanding a more careful cost accounting for their money. Public officials, as a result, began defining accountability in the terminology of limited resources, cost effectiveness, and systems models. In effect, many of these officials were foreshadowing the use of management systems to account for the use of federal monies in federal projects.

The pressure for fiscal accountability was also a response to public demands that were taking place in the late 60's. According to the Annual Report to the President and Congress,[7] the late 1960's were marked by voters clamoring for an account of their tax dollars. Most bond issues were defeated in an emphatic and resounding manner. Taxpayers in some communities resisted any attempts to raise new tax dollars even when schools were forced to close. While the public was demanding that their schools be more responsive to local needs, they were resisting any increase in local funds to meet these needs.

The direct relationship between public concern for the cost of education and the demand for accountability was demonstrated by the 1971 Gallup poll of public attitudes toward education. Americans rated the financial crisis as the number one problem of local schools. The public wanted to know how effectively their educational dollars had been spent before they would agree to support new school programs.

As the pressure for fiscal accountability grew and financial restraints increased, the desire for efficiency became more pro-

[7] National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children. "The Weakest Link: The Children of the Poor." Title I, ESEA, 1971 Annual Report to the President and Congress. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1971.

nounced. School people were urged to adopt business management techniques for resource allocation and planning. School administrators were introduced to management by objectives, contract engineering, logistics, quality assurance, Program Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT), resource utilization, Critical Path Method (CPM), and Program Planning and Budgeting System (PPBS). The impetus for using business management techniques in education stemmed, in part, from their earlier use in governmental agencies.

George McNamara applied many business management techniques to the operation of the Department of Defense. His success led President Johnson to issue an executive order in 1965 requiring the use of PPBS in all federal agencies.[8] Accordingly, Secretary John Gardner had guidelines prepared for the application of PPBS to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, including the Office of Education. The implications of these actions were given in a speech presented by Terrel Bell in which he stated:

> In the U.S. Office of Education, for example, the Secretary has put HEW on a management by objectives system. In monthly review sessions, he wants a detailed time-phased action to show how 1.5 billion dollars of ESEA's Title I is going to buy some measurable progress in disadvantaged student accomplishment. The systems approach to laying out objectives and setting forth in dollars, personnel, and action strategy the means for attaining goals is becoming a perplexing challenge to the U.S. Office of Education. . . . Our sophisticated scientific and production-oriented society is demanding a more sophisticated, scientific, and production-oriented educational system.[9]

The key emphasis in management systems as now applied to education is on objectives which state the desired outcomes in explicit terms—an emphasis that parallels the use of behavioral objectives. Behavioral objectives, which were spawned by the earlier work of Ralph Tyler, Hilda Taba, B. F. Skinner, and Robert Mager, emphasize the outcome-oriented approach as a functional way of shaping instructional practices. Terminology used by adherents of behavioral objectives reflects an emphasis on measurable and observable behavior. Although a difference of opinion still exists as to the effectiveness of behavioral objectives, their use has become widespread and is associated with an increased emphasis on outcomes, efficiency, and specificity. The use of behavioral

[8] T. H. Bell. "Accountability: A Constructive Force in Education." Keynote address given before the Northwest Association of Secondary and High Schools Annual Conference, Reno, Nevada, December 7, 1971.

[9] *Ibid.*

objectives has generally reinforced fiscal accountability; usually, individuals who accept the outcome orientation of behavioral objectives more readily accept the use of management systems in education and fiscal accountability.

This brief sketch of fiscal accountability has identified some of the pressures associated with the accountability movement. These pressures are complex and pose many problems particularly when they are viewed in conjunction with the indictments of failure being expressed by critics of the educational system. However, public school systems throughout their long history have always been subject to some type of criticism. The next topic will trace some of the historical antecedents of "instructional accountability" and will note how indictments of failure have been leveled first at one part of the educational system and then another.

Instructional Accountability

As institutions beleaguered by crosscurrents from political, social, and economic forces, schools have found it difficult to be responsive to changing needs and opportunities of the times. The effect of cultural conditions on the schools and curriculum was documented by R. Freeman Butts in his narrative history of western education.[10] He described the first schools in the United States as being small, simply administered, and controlled directly by individuals in the community. Few children during this era actually attended schools since the demands for unskilled, semi-skilled, and domestic labor were quite large and, consequently, people could easily obtain jobs. However, as industrialization occurred, the cultural conditions shifted dramatically and so did the emphasis of the schools. Two primary changes in the educational system were evident during this period. First, authority for administering schools shifted away from people in the communities and second, schools assumed the function of sorting individuals for job responsibilities.

The shift in authority was to be expected, for as cities grew so did city school systems and state agencies. The complexity of larger schools made many problems difficult to understand and most citizens adopted the attitude that teachers were specialists who should be allowed to ply their own trade without interference. Teachers, then, were free to discharge their duties and respon-

[10] R. F. Butts. *A Cultural History of Western Education.* York, Pennsylvania: Maple Press Company, 1955.

sibilities in their schools, usually with little community participation or involvement. During this period, teachers generally held each child accountable for his own success. Lacking any guidelines for studying individual potential, teachers assumed that children who failed had limited ability and/or were lazy; when failure occurred, it was attributed to "poor genetic stock," poor study habits, poor attitudes, or a lack of motivation. The general notion which persisted was that if a school failed to educate a child, it was the child's fault.

As time progressed, it was recognized that the failure of children in schools might be due, in part, to the effects of the community and the home environment. In the 1930's Lloyd Warner, Robert Havighurst, and Bruce Neugarten published studies which emphasized differences between social classes; while the Committee on Human Development pursued the study of cultural learning. Such studies demonstrated the partial influence of community and family factors on the success or failure of a child in school. Consequently, the concept of responsibility for a child's success or failure was broadened to include members of the community. No longer could the responsibility of a child's failure rest solely upon the pupil; rather it was attributed, in part, to cultural conditions within his community.

During the late 50's, upon the realization that the Russians were ahead in nuclear technology--if not in basic research—school failures were related to the teaching of the disciplines. Schools were considered ineffective--critics charged that the curriculum had failed to keep abreast of the changing times. Consequently large sums of money were provided by the National Science Foundation to revise the science, math, and foreign language curricula. During this period curriculum designers shared the blame for failure with students and community.

In the 70's, the emphasis shifted once again. Some critics of education took an extreme position that if a child fails, it is the teacher's fault. They placed the blame on teachers for the lack of basic skills in children from poverty areas and for the disenchantment of the community with their schools. These critics suggested that the effectiveness of the schools can be assessed by evaluating the performance of teachers as measured by the achievement of their students. Evaluation, in their opinion, would then serve as the basis for retaining and certifying those teachers who produced learning in children.

Through the years, responsibility for failure in the schools has

been associated with one group then another. Historically, schools have been subject to varying social influences which have focused criticism on different parts of the educational system. Each group in turn—children, community, curriculum builders, and teachers—has been "held accountable" for failure of the schools.

Legislation Regarding Accountability

Because current criticisms of the schools are associated with social, economic, and political pressures, it is not surprising that legislation is being passed in an effort to mandate effectiveness. Unfortunately, some of this legislation may have harmful long-range effects.

Legislation requiring accountability has been endorsed in many sources, including President Nixon's 1970 Message to Congress on Education Reform. The President stated:

> In developing these new measurements, we will want to begin by comparing the actual educational effectiveness of schools in similar economic and geographic circumstances. We will want to be alert to the fact that in our present educational system we will often find our most devoted, most talented, hardest working teachers in those very schools where the general level of achievement is lowest. They are often there because their commitment to their profession sends them where the demands upon their profession are the greatest.
>
> From these considerations we derive another new concept, *accountability*. School administrators and school teachers alike are responsible for their performance and it is in their interest as well as the interests of their pupils that they be held accountable. . . .[11]

Other official endorsements of the theme of accountability have been expressed during the past few years at state and national meetings. For example, one of the major groups supporting accountability, the Education Commission of the States, devoted its July 1970 meeting to this topic.

Official endorsements of the accountability movement have prompted the preparation and enactment of legislation in many states. Information about current legislation related to accountability can be found in published reports issued periodically by the Cooperative Accountability Project (CAP).[12]

[11] Richard M. Nixon. "Special Message to Congress on Education Reform." March 3, 1970.

[12] The Cooperative Accountability Project (CAP), a seven state, three year project initiated in April 1971, is funded to develop an accountability system which will serve as a model for state education agencies.

State	Legislation Enacted	No Legislation
Alabama		X
Alaska	X	
Arizona	X	
Arkansas	X	
California	X	
Colorado	X	
Connecticut	X	
Delaware		X
District of Columbia		X
Florida	X	
Georgia		X
Hawaii	X	
Idaho		X
Illinois	X	
Indiana	X	
Iowa		X
Kansas	X	
Kentucky		X
Louisiana		X
Maine		X
Maryland	X	
Massachusetts	X	
Michigan	X	
Minnesota		X
Mississippi		X
Missouri		X
Montana		X
Nebraska	X	
Nevada	Joint Resolution	No Statute
New Hampshire		X
New Jersey	X	
New Mexico	X	
New York	X	
North Carolina		X
North Dakota		X
Ohio	X	
Oklahoma	Joint Resolution*	No Statute
Oregon	X	
Pennsylvania	X	
Rhode Island	X	
South Carolina		X
South Dakota	X	
Tennessee		X
Texas	X	
Utah		X
Vermont		X
Virginia	X	
Washington	X	
West Virginia		X
Wisconsin	X	
Wyoming		X
TOTAL**	27	24

*The contents of the Resolution were made a part of the School Code.

**Total does not include the Joint Resolutions. Inclusion of the District of Columbia makes a total of 51.

Table 1. *Status of Accountability Legislation, Fall 1973*

Table 1 presents information on the status of legislation about accountability as of fall 1973.[13] According to this table 27 states enacted laws which feature "some aspect of accountability." Two other states, Nevada and Oklahoma, adopted Joint Resolutions supporting accountability. In a more specific tabulation, states were listed as having "some aspect of accountability" if they had legislation relating to one or more of the following:

1. Statewide testing or assessment program (15 states)
2. Utilization of a PPBS, MIS (Management Information System), or a uniform accounting system (13 states)
3. Evaluation of professional employees (9 states).

An analysis of individual state legislation reveals that a few states are taking a narrow approach to accountability. For example, five states have accountability legislation which pertains only to the evaluation of professional personnel. Other states are instituting comprehensive plans for accountability. Michigan, for example, has unveiled a six step model containing the following elements: (a) identification of statewide goals, (b) development of measurable objectives to meet these goals, (c) assessment of student needs to meet the objectives, (d) analysis of an instructional delivery system, (e) evaluation of that delivery system, and (f) commendation for change and improvement.[14] Similarly, Florida, another leading state in the accountability movement, has adopted these elements as part of its accountability plan (Section 229.053—1969 Florida Statutes):

1. To establish statewide educational objectives
2. To establish objectives which shall receive highest priority for a given time period
3. To establish a sound program of financial support
4. To provide efficient coordination and distribution of funds
5. To establish minimum standards for achievement and quality control
6. To assist localities in evaluating results
7. To develop a good information system on the facts and conditions of education.

[13] Cooperative Accountability Project. *Legislation by the States: Accountability and Assessment in Education.* Revised. Denver, Colorado: CAP, fall 1973.

[14] John W. Porter. "What Are We Getting for Our Tax Dollar?" *Compact* 7 (5): 19-21; November-December 1973.

Although state plans for accountability differ, they have certain elements in common. For example, most of the accountability plans legislated by the states include one or more of the following components: establishment of statewide goals, collection of information on student performance, provision for allocation of state resources, establishment of some type of accounting procedure, and evaluation of professional personnel.

Several states have developed statewide educational goals or objectives. In some instances the legislation is prescriptive in specifying goals (for example, Mississippi). In other instances the legislation is general enough to permit a wide degree of latitude (for example, Massachusetts).

Fifteen states have instituted statewide programs to assess student achievement. Some states use the results to attempt to isolate factors that influence learning—some use the results for statewide decision making. States generally disseminate test results to local schools and school districts.

The allocation of state resources is often dependent upon compliance with some aspect of an accountability plan. For example, Colorado law provides that failure to establish and maintain a program accounting system will result in a loss of ". . . ten percent of the amount it otherwise would receive during the ensuing calendar year pursuant to the 'Public School Foundation Act of 1969.'" [15] Other states provide extra resources to encourage improvement in their programs of "educational effectiveness and fiscal efficiency." [16]

Thirteen states have legislated some type of accounting system that relates program, management, and budget. In some states specific procedures are legislated; in other states the department of education is directed to work with school districts in developing appropriate systems for the management of information.

Nine states have passed legislation regarding evaluation of professional personnel. Some of these states directly relate teacher evaluation and accountability. For example, the widely challenged California legislation specifies that, "all local teacher evaluation systems must include standards of expected student progress in each area of study, and certificated personnel are to be assessed in relation to the established standards." [17] By way of contrast, the

[15] Cooperative Accountability Project, *op. cit.*, p. 6.1.

[16] Cooperative Accountability Project, *op. cit.*, p. 14.0.

[17] Cooperative Accountability Project, *op. cit.*, p. 5.8.

Kansas legislation provides simply that each board of education shall develop procedures for the evaluation of professional employees within general guidelines.[18]

Assessment is not only occurring at the state level but also at the national level. At the present time the National Assessment of Educational Progress program is conducting an analysis of the attainment of important educational objectives. The NAEP reports valuable information regarding subject matter areas, socioeconomic data, and pupil progress.

Any plan for accountability at the local school or school district level will need to be developed in relation to state and national programs. How the various components of such plans can be integrated into the proposed PACT approach will be discussed in a later section (see pp. 30-32).

[18] Cooperative Accountability Project, *op. cit.*, p. 17.0.

SECTION II
Guidelines for Applying Accountability to Schools

CURRENT APPLICATIONS of accountability to schools have run into difficult and complex problems. Many of these problems relate to political and philosophical issues—issues which must be encountered and resolved in any movement which affects the lives and schooling of many people. The political issues revolve around the question of who makes what decisions about accountability. The philosophical issues are related to fundamental ideas about education including basic values, standards, and individual and national goals.

Underlying both the political and philosophical issues in accountability is the question of purpose. The emphasis on program and fiscal accountability, prevalent in beginning stages, affected only a small number of people and served a specialized function. Yet under current conditions, in which a large number of people are being affected, the "why" or reason for accountability should *not* be grounded in a narrow philosophy which invites problems because of its specialized interest. If accountability is to become a positive force in education, its meaning must be divorced from the specific emphasis from which it originated. And it should be based on a set of guidelines which will enable schools as institutions effectively to play out their role in society.

GUIDELINE NO. 1. *The purpose of maintaining an educational accountability program is to improve the quality of education.*

This guideline provides a clear enunciation of purpose for accountability. It does not eliminate the use of fiscal accountability and program accountability with their emphases on cost-effectiveness and program planning. Rather, this guideline states that in the final analysis an accountability program is to be judged by its effect on the quality of educational experiences provided by the school. If some type of fiscal accountability enables schools to

provide better educational programs, then it has merit. Similarly, if cost-effectiveness provides a means for achieving better education, it has value.

This guideline does not deny the value and importance of planning. In fact, a more comprehensive kind of planning is needed than is to be found in most management-technique approaches. This planning must be flexible enough to permit free play for individuality of experience and yet firm enough to provide continuous learning. Schools engaged in comprehensive planning should undergo a continuous self-evaluation. Through this process of self-evaluation, the meaning and the purposes of the school will become clearer.

As schools undertake the task of deciding why they exist and for whom they exist, new goals are likely to emerge. Accountability demands the reconstruction of goals, and an agreement on those which have the highest priority. It is through this process of reconstruction that new goals, relevant to the present and as a basis for future planning, will be agreed upon. In a changing, dynamic world new meanings must evolve from those individuals who live in the present. However, new meanings for schools cannot become clear in a random, uncontrolled, unorganized activity which exists in the name of education. Instead, they must evolve from the critical selection of goals by teachers and citizens who are engaged in the process of gathering information about their schools. New meanings for schools rest upon the problems solved by people living in a specific place and at a specific time.

The power of accountability rests upon public acceptance of teachers engaged with their communities in the process of solving school problems. Since truth for each community is fashioned in human experience, it becomes important to discover and rediscover where institutions and ideas are weak. The school-based unit for accountability proposed in Section III, developed on sound principles of democracy, opens the context of education to continuous criticism, inspection, and revision by society. Accountability based on this philosophy utilizes all the resources of people and technology to help education in the continuous process of self-renewal.

Accountability construed in a philosophy of experience is not an end in itself—nor is it only a means. Accountability is an instrument for enabling educational institutions to be responsive to the present realities of our society. Accountability can encourage the utilization of technology and resources to provide a better future for young people in the schools.

GUIDELINE NO. 2. *Any person or group sharing responsibility for the quality or nature of educational experiences should be accountable to the affected children, parents, community, and to the larger society.*

This guideline provides an answer to the question: Who is to be held accountable? As indicated in the previous section, children, community members, curriculum builders, and teachers have all been subject to criticism and "held accountable" for failure in the schools. Since each of these groups influences educational experiences, it is appropriate for them to be held accountable. However, other groups and individuals should share in this accountability—school and central office administrators, members of boards of education, state and national lawmakers, state department of education officials, and state governors.

This leads to another question associated with this guideline—Who should control accountability? As indicated in Section I, a number of states are legislating accountability and several are establishing controls at the state level. But problems can result from establishing accountability by state legislation. These problems ultimately affect the attitudes, dispositions, and feelings of those individuals who are held accountable. Legislative accountability, rooted as it is in economics and politics, often produces feelings of alienation and despair on the part of those who are held accountable. Too often educators are held responsible but they have no control over their resources.

The writers of this booklet believe that there is a direct relationship between the degree of local control of accountability and its positive impact on the instructional program. Control of accountability is accompanied by the power to make important decisions. If accountability is to result in improved education these decisions should be in the hands of the majority of people who will be held accountable—people in the local school and community. This position is in accord with an official statement issued by the National Education Association:

> The Association believes that educators can be accountable only to the degree that they share responsibility in educational decision making and to the degree that other parties who share this responsibility—legislators, other government officials, school boards, parents, students and taxpayers—are also held accountable.[1]

[1] National Education Association. "Current Resolution 73-25. Accountability." *1973-74 NEA Handbook for Local, State, and National Associations.* Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1973. p. 85.

The state can provide some direction for programs of accountability and still concentrate most of the decision-making power in the hands of people at the school level. The role of the states should be that of providing aid, opening lines of communication so that support can be administered if it is needed, and cooperating with the people in the local districts. Specific activities conducted by states include:

- Collecting, analyzing, and interpreting information regarding accountability
- Developing technology and activities for achieving accountability
- Establishing uniform state goals and objectives
- Providing information on costs and processes of instructional programs.

The manner in which accountability is put into effect by the states and the school district and the support they provide for activities associated with accountability will influence the impact of accountability on the education of students. However, schools must operate within the constraints established by local, state, and national bodies. The Planning Accountability Team (PACT) approach provides for adapting to variations in external constraints and at the same time suggests a procedure that will gain the confidence of local, state, and national leaders—confidence that can result in assigning greater control to the local school.

GUIDELINE NO. 3. *Although accountability is related to the products of education, accountability should be measured in terms of the input and the process, as well as the products of education.*

Accountability is generally associated with deciding on goals, planning for their achievement, and designing methods of evaluation which determine whether the goals have been realized. Evaluation of products is an integral part of any accountability program. However, a preoccupation with the achievement of immediate goals can result in an impoverished environment for children and teachers. For example, it is possible to put enough pressure on teachers and students to increase "productivity" as measured by standardized test scores. However, such pressure may prove to be dysfunctional as it often sets in motion a self-defeating chain of events: teachers begin to teach for the tests, teachers and students recognize that such education is neither relevant nor interesting, and the morale of teachers and students drops. The

net effect is that the quality of educational engagements is lowered and students drop out of school. Achieving the short-term goal of better test results may actually hinder the achievement of long-range goals of schools in our society.[2]

One way to overcome the hazards of emphasizing only immediate or short-term goals is to monitor the process of education as well as the products—that is, to pay attention to the quality of present experience of students by observing their choice of behavior, involvement, and self-direction as well as their production.

Processes within the school, as well as within the classrooms, will affect the interaction between individuals and between groups, methods of supervision, and procedures for making decisions. Inputs into the school and into the classroom of both human and material resources affect the processes of education and thus also affect the products. Given this interaction between product, process, and input, an effective plan for accountability will not emphasize product over process and input. Rather it will foster the achievement of short-term and long-range goals through a systematic monitoring of products, processes, and inputs.

GUIDELINE No. 4. *Schools, teachers, and others should be held accountable for objectives in the affective and psychomotor realms as well as in the cognitive realm.*

The present controversy over the nature of educational objectives is associated with educational accountability. Some writers have argued that all objectives must be measurable in order for educational accountability to function. This has resulted in a virtually exclusive emphasis on objectives in the cognitive realm. Other writers reject this narrow approach to objectives[3] and some, therefore, reject the general idea of accountability.

[2] Rensis Likert concluded from an analysis of studies in business management that watching closely only the level of performance of end-result variables (production, sales, costs, and earnings) leads to pressure-oriented, threatening supervision. This produces a substantial increase in long-range costs to the organization. To prevent this, Likert recommended that business measure variables that ". . . reflect the current condition of the internal state of the organization: its loyalty, skills, motivations, and capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision-making." See: Rensis Likert. *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961. p. 61.

[3] See for example: Arthur W. Combs. *Educational Accountability: Beyond Behavioral Objectives*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972. 46 pp.

The writers of the present work believe that schools which are developing goals and objectives for a pluralistic society should try to integrate any dualisms which tend to divide the purposes of the schools. Any attempt to make simplistic dichotomies among objectives such as measurable versus nonmeasurable, or subjective versus objective measurement should be eliminated. Goals and objectives should be selected so that they are broad enough to incorporate all the functions of the schools and yet specific enough to provide feedback to see if they are being accomplished. To achieve this is no easy task. However, the next section attempts to follow this guideline, as well as the other three, in a school-based program of educational accountability.

PROCESSES IN A SCHOOL-BASED ACCOUNTABILITY PROGRAM

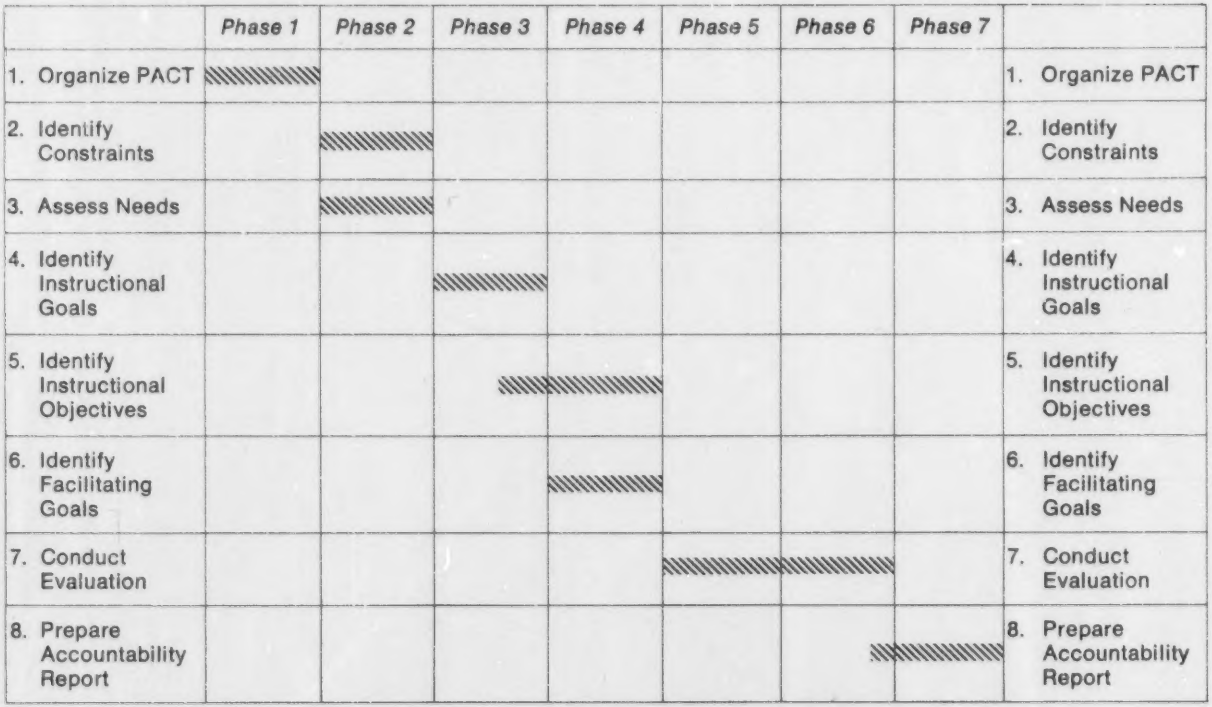

Figure 1.

SECTION III
A Guide to a School-Based Approach to Accountability

AN APPLICATION of the guidelines of accountability stated in the previous section can make accountability a useful force in education. Yet can these guidelines be followed in practice? And, if they can, will the results justify the effort? This section shows how affirmative responses can be found for both questions.

The accountability plan presented in this section incorporates some well-established practices in curriculum development[1] including:

- The use of the school as a locus for curriculum development
- The participation of teachers and administrators in making curriculum decisions that will affect them
- The participation of informed and interested citizens on curriculum committees.

The plan, however, extends these basic practices by adding some additional responsibilities, such as evaluation, to the functions of a Planning Accountability Team (PACT).

The PACT approach to accountability is school-based. Under such a system, responsibility for determining objectives, allocating resources, and measuring and reporting results is assigned primarily to the local school level. Accordingly, a maximum amount of decision making should also be at the school level.

An understanding of the total plan can be gained through studying Figure 1 (p. 18). This Gantt Chart identifies the processes involved in a school-based accountability program and suggests a time frame for their accomplishment. A brief summary of each process is presented in the next few paragraphs—a complete de-

[1] Hollis Caswell and associates. *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. p. 94

scription of each process, including illustrations and how-to-do-it suggestions, is given in subsequent pages.

1. *Organize PACT.* The nature of the Planning Accountability Team (PACT), its membership and its functions, stems directly from stated guidelines for applying accountability, Section II (pp. 12-17), and from established practices in curriculum development. Since the purpose of accountability is to improve the quality of education, its focus should be on the educational needs of individual students. Accordingly, *the PACT is organized at the local school level.* This is consistent with the established practice of using the school as the unit for curriculum development. Membership on the PACT includes students, professionals, and lay personnel associated with a local school. It is recognized in the plan, however, that accountability can only be effective if it occurs simultaneously at all levels of the system—state, district, and school.

2. *Identify constraints.* Within any school there are various types of constraints—that is, forces that inhibit the free flow of ideas and resources. Some of these forces are products of social systems, either within or external to the school. Other constraints are products of political and economic systems. And still other constraints are simple problems of logistics. One of the first tasks of the PACT is to identify the most important constraints. A knowledge of these constraints will aid the PACT in setting realistic goals. In some instances the PACT may have as one of its goals to remove or attenuate a constraint.

3. *Assess needs.* The PACT will gather data about the present conditions of the school, the community, and the student body in order to determine future goals for the school. In effect, it will identify the strengths and weaknesses of present conditions as a basis for planning.

4. *Identify instructional goals.* The PACT, in cooperation with the faculty, will identify instructional goals based on the needs that have been assessed. These goals should be sufficiently flexible to enable the school to be responsive to a changing society and to meet the needs of individual children.

5. *Identify instructional objectives.* The identification of instructional objectives related to the instructional goals is a task performed by the faculty. One aspect of this task is to specify performance criteria that can be used to evaluate the achievement of the goals and the objectives.

6. *Identify facilitating goals.* In order for teachers to achieve instructional goals, certain conditions are necessary. For example, appropriate materials are needed to use an inquiry approach in science. Facilitating goals have to do with achieving appropriate conditions to enable teachers to reach their instructional goals. The PACT assists in identifying and achieving these goals.

7. *Conduct evaluation.* Evaluation provides the PACT with information to be used in monitoring the processes and in examining the degree of congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization. The faculty groups evaluate process and product in relation to instructional goals. However, the PACT reviews their plans for evaluation, the results, and the interpretation of the results. The PACT is responsible for evaluation relating to facilitating goals.

8. *Prepare accountability report.* Accountability is defined in Section I as reporting the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization. Accordingly, the PACT prepares a report in which it states the agreed upon instructional goals and facilitating goals and indicates the congruence between these goals and their realization. Such a report would probably contain appropriate background information regarding constraints and needs.

Some sense of timing of these processes can be gained by reference to Figure 1. The length of each phase would vary from school to school and would depend upon whether the school was using the PACT approach for the first time. In this case, it might be appropriate to think of Phases 1 to 7 as covering two years. The first year would include Phases 1 through 4 and the second year, Phases 5, 6, and 7. However, once a school had completed a two-year cycle, the cycle could probably be reduced to one year since the PACT would already be organized and the basic data collected. The phases would undoubtedly vary in length. For example, Phase 4—the period when the plans are actually being put into action—might require a relatively long block of time.

The writers' attempt to chart in specific terms a process that so vitally affects the lives of children and teachers is hazardous. It would be unfortunate if gains in clarity resulted in an incapacitating rigidity of application. School groups using this guide should view it as a general map of waters to be sailed over. They should chart their own course through these waters and if the map helps them to avoid the reefs and to reach their destination of improved education it will have served its purpose.

ORGANIZE A PLANNING ACCOUNTABILITY TEAM (PACT) [2]

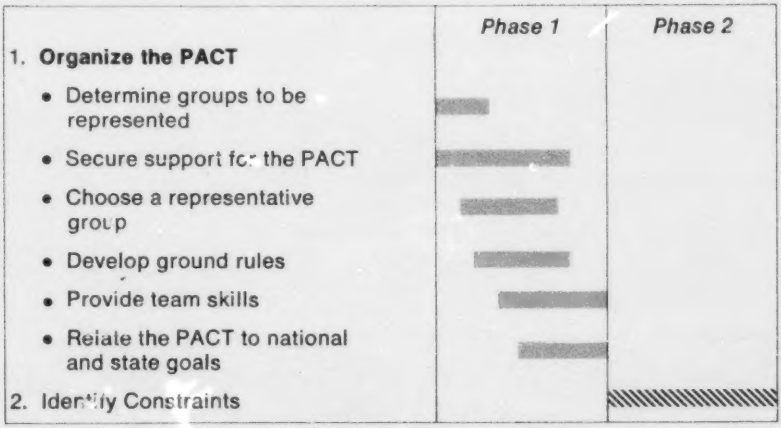
Phase 1
Phase 2
1. Organize the PACT
• Determine groups to be represented
• Secure support for the PACT
• Choose a representative group
• Develop ground rules
• Provide team skills
• Relate the PACT to national and state goals
2. Identify Constraints

Figure 2.

The organization of the PACT is a key to the entire operation of the accountability plan. The individuals or groups responsible for organizing PACT need to make several initial decisions about the formation of the team. Decisions must be made regarding the securing of support and resources for the team. The composition of the group must be decided. How will people be chosen? What are the advantages and disadvantages in having certain groups represented?

Possible answers to these questions are provided in the following discussion organized around five key ideas:

- Determine groups to be represented
- Secure support for the PACT
- Choose a representative group
- Develop "ground rules" for the PACT
- Provide the necessary skills for team effectiveness
- Relate the PACT to national, state, and local goals for accountability.

[2] An expanded section of Figure 1 is used to introduce each of the eight processes in the PACT approach. These "mini-Gantt" charts show the preceding and following processes and provide an overview of the discussion.

Determine Groups To Be Represented

One of the initial problems in beginning a Planning Accountability Team is deciding who will be represented. As indicated previously, answers to this question are determined by examining guidelines for accountability and by considering established practices in curriculum development. One guideline for accountability is that any person or group influencing the quality or nature of educational experience should be accountable. This guideline can be combined with the established practice in curriculum development that persons affected by a curriculum decision should participate in making that decision. A combination of this guideline and this practice indicates that if individuals or groups are to be held accountable, they should have a part in planning for that accountability. Since teachers, administrators, citizens, and students can all affect the quality of education, each group should be represented on the PACT.

In some instances, a school board policy will determine the groups to be represented on the PACT. For example, the School Board of Alachua County (Florida) has established a policy that requires every school in the county to have a functioning Citizen Advisory Council.[3] The functions of these councils are consistent with that of a PACT. The Alachua County policy stipulates that at least 51 percent of the membership on the council shall be elected parents with additional members from the general community, from school support groups, from the school faculty, from the school staff, and, for secondary schools, from pupils in each grade level.[4]

The value of teacher and administrator participation in curriculum development has been recognized for the past half century. Efforts to bypass these groups, and to impose curriculum plans "from above," have generally failed. The organized teaching profession has demanded that teachers have a voice in determining curriculum as a part of their negotiated contracts in many communities.

The place of citizen participation in curriculum development is not as well established as that of professionals. In fact, lay participation has been "in style" and "out of style" over the past few decades. During the 1940's and early 1950's, citizens' committees for education provided an important source of support for schools.

[3] *School Advisory Council Handbook*. Gainesville, Florida: Alachua County Schools of Florida, 1973. 67 pp.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 24, 25.

Many of these committees worked with teachers in curriculum development. The movement waned in the late 1950's and early 1960's to be renewed in the late 1960's as a part of the drive for decentralization of control of schools. Throughout the years, however, citizen participation has been a continuing feature of some of the outstanding schools.

Teachers have sometimes felt that their professional prerogatives were compromised when citizens worked with them on curriculum. It is significant, therefore, that a recent National Education Association publication, *Accountability*, proposed that the ". . . general public be involved in setting the broad goals and objectives of public schools," and that representatives of the public be involved ". . . in the continuing process of goal review and revision."[5] Earlier the United Federation of Teachers in New York City negotiated a contract with a clause stating that "the Federation and the Board of Education would work together to develop objective standards of professional accountability, in cooperation with parent groups, community boards, universities, and other interested parties." This agreement provided that ". . . teachers, parents, students, community boards, the Board of Education, and supervisors at all levels (will develop) agreed upon objectives: objectives which are not so narrow as to turn children into machines, but also not so broad as to make measurement impossible."[6]

Curriculum experts have long recognized the value of lay participation in curriculum development. As schools move toward the concept of functioning as a management center for curriculum and instruction, citizen participation appears to be even more important. According to William M. Alexander, moving to this new concept ". . . demands a realignment of community educational forces . . . where . . . each school should have its community advisory councils with competent specialists advising these groups on the many problems incident to opening up the curriculum to human relations. . . ."[7]

[5] National Education Association, Instruction and Professional Development. *Accountability*. (Document.) Washington, D.C.: the Association, December 1972. p. 9.

[6] Albert Shanker. "Accountability: Possible Effects on Instructional Programs." In: Leon M. Lessinger and Ralph W. Tyler, editors. *Accountability in Education*. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1971. p. 66.

[7] William M. Alexander. "Curriculum Planning As It Should Be." In: J. Galen Saylor, editor. *The School of the Future—Now*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972.

Gordon McCloskey, an advocate of community representation, has cited the following ways in which citizen groups can assist schools: [8]

1. Assemble, appraise, and disseminate facts which clarify educational needs, and increase public understanding of what constitutes a good school program.
2. Help boards and administrators crystallize opinions and obtain the unity of action essential for improving schools.
3. Communicate their opinions to others, and influence more involvement.

He also cited some problems associated with citizen group participation:

1. When citizen groups have discovered that they possess little real influence, they have become nonfunctional.
2. In a few instances, community groups have attempted to control a school—leading to direct, and often damaging, confrontation with teachers and administrators.
3. Conflicts have started when community groups have attempted to use the school as a vehicle for social change, a desire not shared by the staff.

In many communities today, the advantages of citizen participation in advisory councils have outweighed the disadvantages. Such participation has been marked by clearly defined purposes, established methods of providing facts for discussion, and effective group leadership. Under these conditions, the value of citizen participation has been recognized by professionals and has developed into an overall, long-term effective relationship with the school system.

Clearly, citizens belong on the PACT if the team is to be of maximum benefit to students and the community. The possible disadvantages can be overcome by developing ground rules for the operation of the PACT as discussed in a subsequent part of this booklet. As indicated earlier, some of the activities associated with accountability are assigned exclusively to the faculty.

The case for student participation on the PACT is not as clear. There is little experience to use as a guide in this matter. However, logic would appear to dictate that students should be represented—after all it is their education that is at stake! The use of the PACT should assure that the school is serving the students and should

[8] Gordon McCloskey. *Education and Public Understanding.* Second edition. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967. pp. 412-13.

guard against the possibility that the students are simply serving the school. Student membership on the PACT should help the group to maintain this perspective.

Secure Support for the PACT

The initiative for establishing a PACT can come from a variety of sources. One of the most effective "energizers" would be the school principal and/or the school faculty. However, state and local policy can support school efforts. For example, the State of Florida has passed a bill requiring that school advisory committees be established.[9]

Once the energizing group has considered the idea of citizen and professional representation on the accountability team, its next task is to seek support for the idea of a PACT. This support should be solicited from teachers, students, superintendent, board of education members, leaders in community organizations, and other lay personnel. In most instances, before these individuals and groups will agree to support the PACT, they will want to know the anticipated function of the team—particularly as regards administrative responsibility. The function of the PACT, as it is conceived here, is to assist a local school in the major area of goal setting and assessment. Therefore, it does not represent another administrative level. If personnel in the central office, including the administrative staff, decide to support the PACT, they can assist by acknowledging its area of responsibility, by responding to its recommendations, and by providing it with needed resources. Moreover, administrative officials should in some way recognize the additional time that will be needed by members of this group to fulfill their responsibility.

While personnel in the central office are considering the idea of a PACT, support from the local faculty should be sought if it has not already been secured. This group will play a key role in the total plan; thus, their support is essential. The faculty's acceptance of the PACT will be influenced by the benefits or advantages that they perceive. Distributing a clear statement of purposes and advantages[10] to the faculty as a basis for their discussion will

[9] Cooperative Accountability Project. *Legislation by the States: Accountability and Assessment in Education*. Revised. Denver, Colorado: CAP, fall 1973. p. 10.1.

[10] Such a fact sheet could include a statement of need for an accountability plan and the opportunities it would present to improve education. Benefits of the plan for the staff, pupils, and community should be included, together with a general statement of purpose and an overview.

forestall some problems by focusing faculty attention on the benefits of accountability rather than on the problems. Faculty members could then discuss the proposed plan in a general faculty meeting and could be given the opportunity to form committees to present suitable alternative plans.

If the PACT approach appears to hold promise to the faculty, they can outline specific duties and functions of a PACT for their individual school. For example, they could consider such functions as those assigned to Alachua County school advisory councils: [11]

1. Participating in the decision-making process through involvement in the assessment of educational needs, the establishment of priorities, the planning of the educational program and budget resources for it, the definition of goals, and the evaluation of the school and its academic effectiveness (p. 7)

2. Facilitating school communication with parents and community (p. 11)

3. Informing and advising school staff regarding community conditions, aspirations, and goals (p. 12)

4. Assisting in providing support to parents, teachers, students, and community for school programs (p. 14)

5. Participating in the preparation of the Annual Report of School Progress (p. 19)

6. Assuming and consolidating the functions of existing advisory committees wherever and whenever possible and appropriate (p. 20).

Once the faculty members have made a preliminary determination of functions of a PACT, they can assist the principal in securing necessary support from the local community including the informal power structure. It is not likely that the "gate keepers" within a local community would wish to serve on the PACT; however, the principal could discuss the establishment of such a team with influential community leaders. These lay individuals might be asked to suggest possible members for the team. Then after the PACT is established, its members could appropriately seek opinions from these same community leaders on various questions.

Cooperation also must be established with the many organizations within the community. Organizations with an expressed interest in education—such as the League of Women Voters, Chamber of Commerce, service clubs, and welfare organizations—should either be represented on or kept informed of the work of

[11] *School Advisory Council Handbook,* Alachua County Schools of Florida, *op. cit.*

the PACT. The PACT should establish ways of working with these groups so that their potential contributions to public schools can be realized.

Choose a Representative Group

There are two distinct methods of selecting community representatives for an organization such as a PACT. The usual method is to ask for volunteers. Although this has the obvious and immediate advantage of identifying potentially useful participants, certain safeguards need to be established—individuals who volunteer are not always the best choice and do not always represent all interested groups. Therefore criteria for selection should be developed beforehand and made public. There should be some provision for "recruiting" beyond the volunteer group if it is necessary to assure broad community representation. A second possible procedure for gaining broad community representation on an accountability team is briefly outlined.

1. Publicize a meeting with community members over an extended period of time (for example, three weeks).
2. Divide the participants who attend the meeting into groups and have each group elect a representative.
3. Let the representatives form the membership of the PACT.

This same procedure can be used effectively when teachers and students are chosen as PACT representatives.

A third procedure is to determine in advance the groups to be represented and ask each group to elect its own representative(s). In addition, the PACT might wish to make a provision for the appointment of additional members in order to achieve broad representation and balance.

Develop Ground Rules for the PACT

Once the PACT is formed, it should be careful to avoid major pitfalls which some community-school committees have encountered. Major problems, for example, arise when there is confusion over the roles and responsibilities of the members. Thus ground rules or parameters for the operation of the PACT should be determined in advance.

These ground rules should be determined by or agreed to by those who have been asked to support the PACT. As indicated

previously, the local school faculty could take the leadership in establishing ground rules that would then be submitted to the superintendent, members of the board of education, and community leaders for their comments and suggestions. Some possible suggestions for ground rules are:

1. The team ranges from 10 to 20 members.
2. The chairman is selected by the members of the PACT from the committee.
3. The team acts in an advisory capacity rather than an administrative capacity.
4. The team should decide on tentative statements regarding:
   a. Schedule of time
   b. Estimate of clerical and budgetary needs
   c. Agenda for the team
   d. Statement of areas of responsibility
   e. List of decisions to be made by the team.
5. The general duties and responsibilities of the team should be listed and probably should include:
   a. Develop a philosophy on accountability which they will use to implement a PACT plan
   b. Set up a communication structure within the school
   c. Review existing literature on accountability and utilize these findings in their school
   d. Review current district and school policies which may affect their functioning
   e. Study and review planning and evaluation procedures which are operative in other schools, businesses, and industries.

Provide the Necessary Skills for Team Effectiveness

The second most common pitfall of community-school groups is the failure to take time to build an effective team. This may result in one or more of the following ills:

1. Inaccurate communication
2. Too little or too much communication
3. Restrictive norms
4. Unclear or misinterpreted role definitions
5. Conflicts related to individual differences
6. Inappropriate or inadequate expression of feelings.

Therefore, we recommend that, to operate as an effective problem-solving team, the PACT members should use some of the prepared programs which are designed to provide communication skills[12] and should spend sufficient time observing an effective group in action.[13]

After what appears to be a sufficient period of training, the members of the group could evaluate themselves by videotaping their interaction. At a later date these videotapes could be played back for the further analysis of team problems.

This part has stressed the importance of carefully organizing the PACT. It has emphasized the use of parents and other lay citizens on the committee. In effect, the utilization of these members in appropriate phases of program activity will facilitate the PACT's access to community resources. And it will increase the community's understanding of the accountability program in relation to the goals, the procedures, and the accomplishments of the school.

Although the PACT accountability plan can be implemented without citizen involvement, this lack of participation will decrease the overall effect of the plan. Citizen participation increases the power of accountability.

Through such participation, decision making, whether at the local, district, or state level can be more responsive to the needs of the people. In fact, one effect of citizen participation in accountability may be to shift some aspects of decision making to the local school level.

Relate the PACT to National, State, and Local Goals for Accountability

As the PACT and school officials begin to implement a school-based accountability program, they may first want to consider national, state, and local plans for accountability including existing state laws.

[12] For example, see: C. Jung, R. Pino, R. Howard, and R. Emory. *Interpersonal Communication*. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[13] See: A. Pomfret. "Involving Parents in Schools: Toward Developing a Social-Intervention Technology." *Interchange* 3 (2 and 3): 121-28; 1972, for a description of the use of organizational development training as a means of providing "parents with the social participation norms and skills necessary for effective involvement in instructional and policy formulation activities."

The problem for the PACT and the school officials is to utilize these plans effectively in their own local accountability efforts. By directing energy and initiative to working within the boundaries of statewide legislation and school district plans and then by broadening accountability efforts as appropriate, local accountability may have the maximum long-range impact.

The review of legislation on accountability in Section I indicates that state accountability plans differ considerably but they generally have the following elements in common:

- Establishment of statewide goals
- Collection of information on student performance
- Provision for the allocation of state resources
- Establishment of uniform accounting procedures
- Evaluation of professional employees.

The following suggestions for relating the work of the PACT are organized around these five common elements. In the accountability plan proposed in this booklet, it is suggested that goals for a particular school should be based, at least in part, upon the assessment of local needs. However, in situations where statewide goals are clearly indicated, the PACT and the school officials will generally follow state guidelines. In many situations, some compromise may be available by which state goals and local goals can be blended.

State assessment information, when available, is usually divided into three categories: (a) student achievement, (b) factors influencing learning, and (c) socioeconomic data. The use of this information by the PACT and the school officials again depends upon state guidelines. However, the collection of this type of information is particularly useful in the present plan. In the sections on needs assessment (see pp. 38-43) and evaluation (see pp. 60-66), state assessment data can be used effectively. As is suggested in both these sections, school officials who use standardized test results should do so only with great care. Tests which are normative give relative results which may or may not be helpful, especially if parents and teachers are not sufficiently versed in their interpretation.

The most appropriate use of test results suggests they are most helpful when they are used in conjunction with real data collected on students in the on-going classroom.

Data from other organizations such as the International Asso-

ciation for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) and the National Assessment Programs (NAP) may prove especially valuable, if they can be related to the local situation. Recent results, for instance, from both IEA and NAP found the longer a student spends in school, the more his achievement (in subject matter areas such as science and literature) is influenced by school factors. Similarly, IEA also noted that when more time was spent on learning specific skills and understanding in a course of study, students learned more.

Curriculum specialists might examine results such as these for cues as to which objectives in a given area need more (or less) attention. Again if the National Assessment shows that factual knowledge in science seems to be covered much more effectively than problem solving, then educators may want to consider how to devote more time to problem solving.

The third element common to most state accountability plans, allocation of state resources, will directly affect individual schools when different priority systems for assigning resources are adopted. For that reason the PACT and school officials will want to find out how accountability legislation will affect their county resources in the future. In some instances, funds for counties or school districts may be tied to accountability results.

Although the allocation of funds and resources is primarily the responsibility of the central office, the PACT may help or assist in keeping the effects of accountability legislation from becoming too narrow or restricting.

The fourth element of state accountability plans includes the implementation of uniform accounting systems. These cost accounting and informational systems can serve the local school in many ways. Intelligent use of these systems can aid in long-range planning or in providing immediate feedback about students. For the PACT, data from these systems may be helpful in the needs assessment or in the evaluation phase of the present accountability plan.

The fifth element which is broadly related to state accountability, but not necessarily to this plan, is the evaluation of professional employees. Evaluation of employees as it is defined in the legislation of nine states refers to written evaluations of a teacher in the daily performance of school duties. For the purposes of this accountability plan and the PACT, this particular responsibility is more the domain of either central office staff or school administrative officials.

IDENTIFY CONSTRAINTS

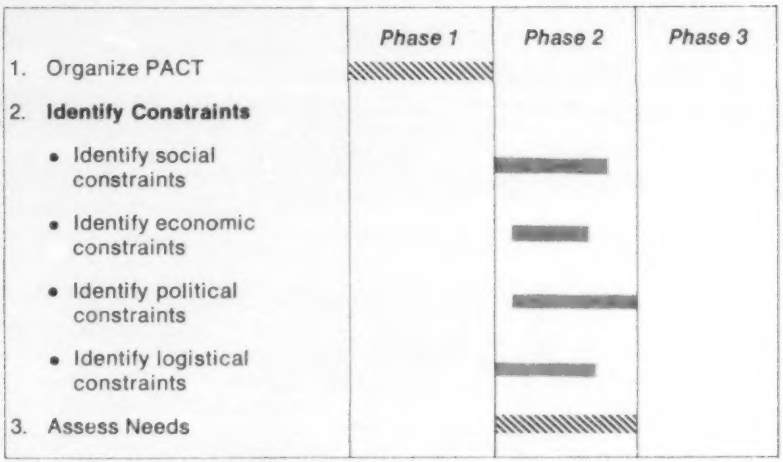

Figure 3.

Forces of various types shape the educational program within a given school. Those forces that have a restricting influence on the program are identified as constraints. Clearly, the Planning Accountability Team (PACT) will need to consider at least the major constraints as it sets goals for the school.

To understand the nature of constraints it is necessary to consider the existing social network of schools. The school is a complex social system of many interrelated and interacting parts. The school as a social system is a subsystem of the district organization.

And the school district, in turn, is a subsystem of a much larger and more complex system of governmental agencies. In all, the interrelated social systems act as a complex support network which relies heavily on the concept of cooperation across its many boundaries. The importance of this cooperation within and between social systems helps to define the concept of "constraint." *For purposes of accountability, the writers have defined constraint as any group, individual, force, or situation which inhibits the process of sharing or mutual cooperation.* Four types of constraints as they affect schools need to be considered by the PACT: social, economic, political, and logistical.

Identify Social Constraints

The influence of social constraints on educational programs is illustrated by Philip Jackson's description of elementary schools. In his book, Jackson described the effect of the "institutional framework in which the teacher and his students are embedded." [14] One of Jackson's major themes was that there is a direct relationship between how the teacher works with the students and how the teacher is treated within the school organization. Elizabeth Eddy's study on *Becoming a Teacher* [15] provides excellent illustrations of Jackson's theme. Excerpts from her interviews with one new teacher indicate one of the ways in which that teacher was initiated into the bureaucracy.

> Fifth Week: The principal came into the room with the district superintendent who was especially in the school to visit the new teachers. At the time, my children were lining up for recess, and one child was causing a disturbance. . . . But the district superintendent was very nice. He came in with me and made the recommendation that perhaps lining up would be easier if boys lined up with boys and girls with girls. . . . [16]

> Seventh Week: The principal's letter to me about her observation was very brief. . . .

> Dear Miss _____:
> I noticed a definite improvement in your class control. I demonstrated for you how you could make it even better. Insist on feet on the floor, desks cleared of everything, and raising hands for response as a consistent classroom pattern. Watch out for repeating the children's answers. Also when questioning, it is usually better to pose the question to the class before you call on an individual.
>
> Sincerely,
> Mary D. O'Connell [17]

Eddy concluded from her interviews with new teachers that "the single most important sign of success as a teacher is a classroom of pupils who follow elaborate ritualistic patterns of behavior which express their subordinate position." [18]

What are some of the other social constraints (groups, indi-

[14] Philip W. Jackson. *Life in the Classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968. p. 117.

[15] Elizabeth M. Eddy. *Becoming a Teacher; The Passage to Professional Status*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1969.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 42.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 43.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 44.

viduals, forces, or situations which inhibit the process of sharing or mutual cooperation) that may affect a school and, in turn, influence teachers? The following are offered as illustrations:

1. Poor communication between personnel in the school and in the central office
2. Cliques of teachers within the faculty that block sharing of ideas
3. Impersonal relationships between administrators and teachers
4. Teachers who have little contact with parents.

The PACT may find it difficult to identify social constraints since school personnel are, understandably, reticent to share such constraints. Some of these constraints will become identified as the PACT conducts a needs assessment described in a following section; other constraints will become apparent as the PACT works with faculty, community members, and central office staff.

Identify Economic Constraints

The PACT can secure enthusiastic cooperation from faculty members in identifying economic constraints. There seem to be many forces that inhibit sharing economic resources with schools. Some of these constraints are related to the allocation of funds for education whether at the federal, state, or district level.

Other constraints have to do with community attitudes toward the school. Still other constraints are associated with an inequitable distribution of resources within a school system. Similarly, an economic constraint exists within a school when there is not a just procedure for sharing resources among teachers. Faculty members can share with the PACT their perceptions of economic constraints. In addition, the PACT will want to gain insights from community leaders, school board members, and state and federal legislators regarding the nature of economic constraints that affect the school.

Identify Political Constraints

Political constraints have to do with "sharing and mutual cooperation" in relation to decision-making power. Decisions that affect an individual school are made at several levels—the school, school district, state, and federal. In general, decentralizing deci-

sion making to the school level will enable the school to be more responsive to the needs of the community it serves.

A case in point is found in the Louisville, Kentucky, schools where decentralization and community involvement occurred in a system remarkably free of politics. As early as July 1971, "mini-boards of education" composed of parents, teachers, students, and interested citizens were formed. At the same time, community residents met to develop guidelines for mini-board membership and election, areas of participation, and legal powers. These community generated plans were then negotiated with the Board of Education. The effectiveness of the Louisville effort is summarized by Terry Borton: "It has been a quiet year in Louisville's schools, perhaps because the neighborhood boards have channeled community interest into constructive action. . . ." [19]

There is, however, some limit to decentralization. For example, to decentralize the purchase of fuel to heat the school would not be wise. The principal would need to spend considerable time working in an area in which he had little or no expertise. On the other hand, allocating a lump sum of money for personnel and then allowing the faculty to decide on the best "mix" of teachers, teacher aides, curriculum specialists, guidance personnel, and administrative staff makes good sense. One hazard in decentralizing decision making is that control over the necessary resources does not always accompany responsibility for making decisions. As one principal in a "decentralized system" said, somewhat cynically, "They have given me autonomy over my problems, but *not* over my resources!"

Where can the Planning Accountability Team (PACT) turn for information on political constraints? Since these constraints exist across several social systems, information from people at various levels—local school, district, state—should be sought. Two questions should suffice to get the discussion started: What types of decisions are made at this level that affect our school? and, What types of decisions do you think should be made at this level?

Identify Logistical Constraints

A fourth type of constraint is logistical in nature. This constraint usually has to do with physical and organizational conditions in a school which inhibit the process of sharing or mutual cooperation. Logistical constraints could include:

[19] Terry Borton. "A Tale of Two Cities." *Saturday Review* 55 (6): 54; February 5, 1972.

1. Time—when it does not allow teachers the opportunity to share ideas in teams or as a faculty

2. School organization—when it does not provide opportunities, for example, for interdisciplinary projects, or teaming approaches

3. School building—when it makes it difficult for teachers to share ideas, resources, and teaching responsibilities

4. A reward system—when it promotes a competitive rather than a cooperative relationship among professionals.

Logistical constraints will be found, primarily, at the building level. Therefore, the PACT can secure assistance from the faculty in identifying these constraints. Students also may have interesting insights on logistical constraints that affect them.

Gathering information regarding the four types of constraints—social, economic, political, logistical—is time-consuming. To expedite its work, the PACT might try the following procedures:

1. Appoint two task forces—one to study social and logistical constraints and one to study political and economic constraints.

2. Identify specific information needed relating to the four categories and make appropriate questionnaires.

3. Interview key individuals in the school and community (principal, staff members, county administrators, and community leaders).

4. Compile the data, and list specific political, economic, and logistical constraints that would influence the setting of realistic goals.

5. Distribute findings to teachers, administrators, and community personnel as appropriate.

The knowledge of constraints will aid in the setting of accountability goals and objectives which are realistic for a school. The school cannot be held accountable for goals where there is inadequate sharing of needed resources with external systems.

The identification of a constraint, however, does not mean that it always should or will exist. The PACT may be able to help remove some constraints. In some instances, providing a feedback of information regarding constraints may facilitate the process of sharing or mutual cooperation. In other instances the PACT might identify the removal of a constraint as a necessary facilitating goal for improved instruction. In this case, the PACT, as a part of its

accountability plan, would make specific plans with appropriate individuals for the removal of the constraint.

The PACT, as an organization within the social system of the school, can either inhibit or encourage mutual cooperation. Its members will need to be sensitive to this possibility in order that the PACT does not become labeled as a constraint but instead is viewed as promoting mutual cooperation. At the same time the PACT may discover that there are constraints or forces within the school preventing the type of sharing and cooperation needed in a program of accountability. The PACT can facilitate many of the other steps in this accountability program by bringing these problems to the attention of the faculty and administration.

The very existence of a PACT has the potential for increasing sharing and mutual cooperation across system boundaries as well as within systems. Thus, for example, when a state legislator is interviewed by a task force on economic and political constraints, he learns that a school is taking accountability seriously. He also learns that the school recognizes the importance of the legislature in influencing education. The seeds for mutual cooperation between that legislator, the school, and the school district have been sown. The chances that these seeds will germinate will, of course, be increased if the school is in the legislator's home district.

ASSESS NEEDS

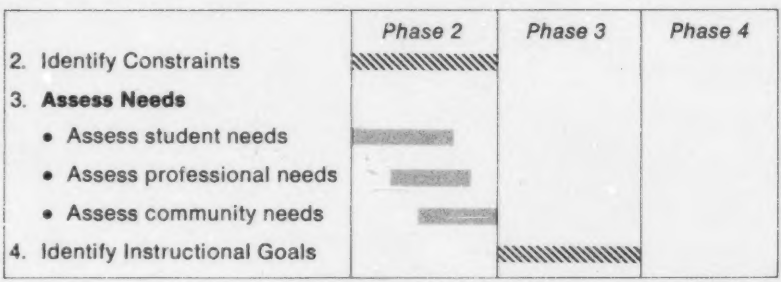

Figure 4.

After the PACT has been organized, and while it is identifying the major constraints related to the different levels of the social system, it should also gather data regarding students, school personnel, and community. In assembling this information, the team is actually conducting a needs assessment, that is, collecting data

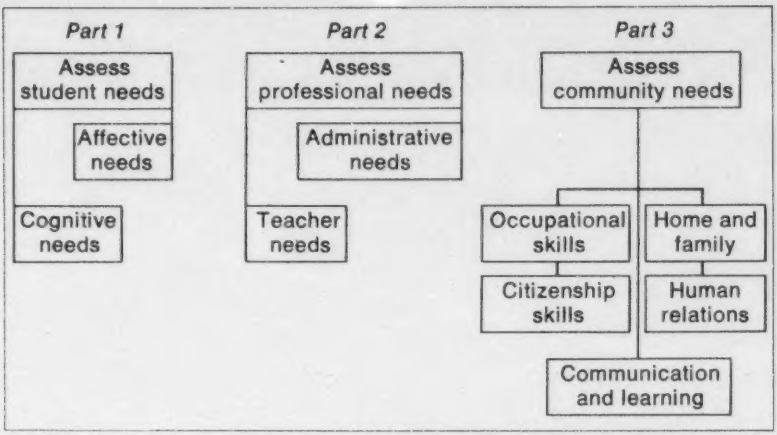

Diagram 1. *Sources of Data for Needs Assessment*

about the present conditions of the school and community in order to determine what the future goals of the school should be.

A number of procedures have been developed for making a needs assessment.[20] The PACT, in selecting the procedure it wishes to use, should remember the purpose of the needs assessment is to provide one source of data for identifying school goals. Since public education is the responsibility of all segments of our society, the school goals should reflect values represented in the community. Therefore, the methods selected should provide for broad community input.

The purposes of the needs assessment for the school extend beyond specifying goals, however, as indicated by the following list:

1. It is part of a systematic approach to specifying goals and objectives.
2. It is a method of identifying and clarifying problems.
3. It provides data indispensable to complex decision making.

Diagram 1 illustrates the type of data needed if PACT is to make these purposes become reality. PACT will first focus on the affective and cognitive needs of the student, then survey the needs of teachers and administrators, and finally gather data about the community. The information from the community which is

[20] For example, see: *Workshop Packet for Educational Goals and Objectives*. Distributed by Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., Commission on Educational Planning, Box 789, 8th and Union, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

listed in Part 3 of the diagram is called status information. Essentially, data gathered through the needs assessment will be used for setting instructional goals.

Assess Student Needs

The diagram indicates that student needs are to be assessed by gathering data regarding affective needs and cognitive needs. According to the NEA guidelines on accountability, student needs (as viewed by parents, teachers, and other students) should be assessed in a broadly comprehensive manner at the state as well as at the local levels.[21] The publication recommends such assessment procedures as:

1. Achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and demographic data (standard and other)
2. Descriptive data on interests, rate of learning, special talents, modes of thinking, and interpersonal relationship skills
3. Periodic assessment to chart general changes, that is, cultural roles of children and adolescents.

In some instances, the PACT will find that some of these data have been collected for students at national, state, and school district levels.

After surveying state sources of data on student needs, the PACT considers data already available at the local school level. As PACT begins its work of diagnosing the needs of students in the school, it becomes important to gain the cooperation of the faculty. Teachers can provide valuable assistance as the PACT studies both the affective and cognitive needs of students. As the PACT considers affective needs of students, one important step will be to diagnose the present status of student attitudes toward school. Two procedures for collecting such data are to:

1. Develop a questionnaire that inquires into the attitudes, values, and feelings of students.
   a. Does the student perceive the hours spent in school as wasted?
   b. Does he or she feel the institution is impersonal? hostile?
   c. Does the student look forward to school or does he or she dislike it?

[21] National Education Association, Instruction and Professional Development. *Accountability, op. cit.*, p. 10.

d. Do students value working together, sharing, and cooperating?

e. How does the peer group affect student learning?

2. Organize subcommittees to collect data on student norms and activities.

As PACT assesses the cognitive needs of students, they will find that considerable data, primarily standardized test results, are already available. However, one precaution should be given to the PACT. Standardized tests are helpful but they should be used in conjunction with other evaluation methods which are available to teachers. Teacher-made tests, open-ended discussion techniques, and criterion-referenced objectives provide other means for assessing the cognitive level of students. Although these latter methods have a greater potential for "error," they provide information in areas that standardized tests do not. Therefore, each technique complements the other at a point of possible weakness.

Assess Professional Needs

Professional needs are assessed by collecting data on teacher and administrative needs. Teacher and administrator understanding and cooperation will be necessary in order to collect data on internal needs. The professionals should be helped to realize that the data will be used as a basis for helping school people to do their job more effectively—not as a basis for a "witch hunt." Data gathering procedures should focus on those personal characteristics, professional attitudes, professional preparation, and professional behaviors which directly affect the instructional and administrative processes. The PACT should be especially attentive to teacher and administrative factors which might inadvertently impede the educational process.

An important reference which suggests procedures to use in assessing teacher and administrative needs is that by Robert S. Fox *et al., Diagnosing Professional Climates of Schools.*[22] This book contains appropriate instruments and explanations for examining the school as a social system. Moreover, it contains questionnaires and informal surveys which ask such questions as, do administrators:

[22] R. S. Fox *et al. Diagnosing Professional Climates of Schools.* Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973.

1. Give teachers the feeling that their work is an important activity?

2. Give teachers the feeling that they can make significant contributions to improving the classroom performance of their students?

3. Take a strong professional interest in the teaching profession?

4. Help eliminate obstacles to the educational process?

5. Minimize the individual differences found in the faculty?

Assess Community Needs

This part of the needs assessment surveys the status of different variables in the community. An assessment of the status variables is a necessary antecedent to the establishment of school goals.

The answers provided through this assessment will indicate the current strengths and weaknesses of the community in the five areas which an instructional program usually addresses—citizenship, human relations, occupational, communication, and home and family.

The list of questions which follows is drawn from a needs assessment approach used by the Department of Education in the state of Florida.[23] In each case, the question refers to the local school community. The questions should serve only as a guide and should be modified by each PACT group to assure that they are appropriate.

I. Occupational Interests

1. What percent of the population is in the labor force?

2. What percent of the labor force is engaged in manufacturing industries? White collar occupations? Government work?

3. What percent of the population is engaged in agricultural occupations? Nonagricultural occupations?

4. What is the unemployment rate?

5. What percent of vocational program graduates successfully obtains employment in the skill area for which they have been trained?

6. What is the median income by occupation for employees?

[23] Department of Education. *An Assessment of Educational Needs for Learners in Florida.* Tallahassee, Florida: the Department, 1970. pp. 111-18.

II. Communication and Learning Skills

1. What percent of draftees and volunteers is rejected by the armed services because of a lack of mental skills?

2. What percent of the population is classified as functionally illiterate? (Race, Residence, and Sex)

3. What percent of the student body prematurely terminates its schooling?

a. What percent withdraws without the expressed intent of returning?

b. What percent of persons 14-17 years of age is enrolled in school? (Race, Residence, and Sex)

4. What percent of high school graduates continues its formal education? (College, Vocational, and Technical Schools)

III. Citizenship Education

1. What percent of the population 18 years of age and older is registered to vote? (Race, Sex)

2. What percent of those persons registered to vote actually votes?

3. What percent of the juvenile population is arrested for such crimes as theft, larceny, disorderly conduct, possession of weapons, and other similar violations? (Race, Sex)

4. What percent of the general population is arrested for the crimes mentioned above? (Race, Sex, and Residence)

5. What percent of the juvenile population is referred to the juvenile courts for traffic offenses? (Race, Sex, and Residence)

IV. Home and Family Relationships

1. What percent of the population under 18 years of age receives Aid to Dependent Children?

2. What percent of the families is below the poverty level? (Race, Residence)

3. What are the number and percent of children from broken homes?

4. What are the characteristics of the housing, that is, median value, median rent, median number of rooms, percent with sound plumbing, percent with more than one person per room, etc.? (Race, Residence)

5. What is the median number of children per family?

V. Human Relations

1. What are the illegitimacy rates? (Race, Age)

2. What is the most prominent local problem today?

3. What skills are needed by the school population to deal effectively with the problems in human relations?

The information gathered through these questions, and through other needs assessment procedures, will be used by the PACT in developing a list of school goals.

IDENTIFY INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS

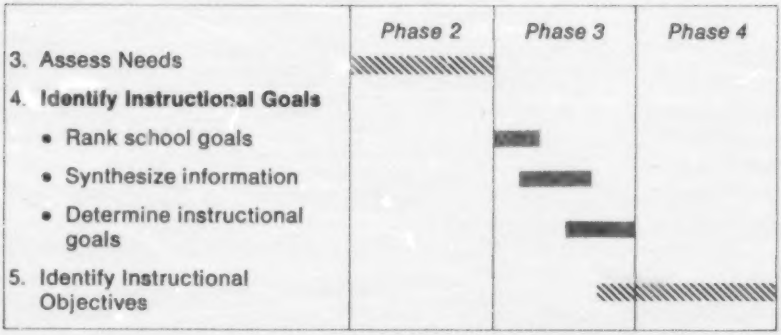

Figure 5.

The identification of constraints and the assessment of needs provide the PACT with information to be used in determining instructional goals. The PACT, in close cooperation with the faculty, identifies the most important instructional goals. These goals, and related facilitating goals, will provide the basis for accountability. In identifying goals there is a flow from general goals to more specific ones. At each stage in the process, judgments must be made to select the few goals that should have the highest priority.

Before considering the steps to be taken in identifying goals for the school, the PACT should be aware of four problems which often arise in selecting goals:

1. Teachers resent being made accountable for goals which they did not select. As a result, they may label such goals as "unfair" or "irrelevant."

2. Goals for planning and accountability should involve more than the values and views of professional educators. If the PACT is to work to improve the quality of education, then the goals selected must be based on a shared consultation with parents, community members, and children.

3. Any goals which are finally selected must be considered in light of many divergent and sometimes conflicting philosophies which are present in school and society. For example, one group in a school may advocate an "engineered curriculum" using a mechanistic systems analysis approach. Another group may value

individual diversity and urge that a "person-oriented" curriculum approach be used. The challenge is to negotiate goal decisions to represent different values and to avoid the types of simplistic dichotomies discussed earlier.

4. Goals which are selected may become inflexible. Given the complexity of a changing technological society, goals should be adjusted when there is evidence that they are inappropriate for a specific situation. Flexibility in goals, as opposed to rigidity, mirrors a changing society where children are expected to function.

The procedures that follow were selected to minimize these problems.

Rank School Goals

The PACT usually has available separate lists of goals issued by the state department of education and the school system. In some instances, the school may have developed its own statement of goals. The PACT uses these lists and the results of its own study of needs and constraints to develop a synthesized list of goals to be ranked by representative community and school personnel. One procedure that could be used to secure this ranking is illustrated in the following steps:

1. The PACT identifies a list of goals consistent with its own assessment of needs and constraints.

2. The list of goals identified by the PACT is combined with existing school, district, and state goals.

3. A Q-sort instrument is developed.[24]

4. The Q-sort is administered to all school personnel and a sufficient sample of community people. Each person ranks the goals according to order of importance on a scale from one to seven.

5. The ranking of each of the goals is tabulated.

6. A lay-professional group uses these rankings and arrives at a consensus in ranking of the goals through the use of the Delphi prediction technique.[25]

[24] For a review of Q-sort methodology see: Fred N. Kerlinger. "Q-Methodology." In: *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1964. pp. 581-602.

[25] O. Helmer. *Analysis of the Future: The Delphi Method*. Santa Monica, California: Rand Corporation, 1967.

Synthesize Information

Through the procedures outlined above, or similar procedures, the PACT has developed a list of school goals ranked by importance. The team members also have information from their assessment of needs and their analysis of constraints. This information needs to be synthesized in order to determine those instructional goals that are of the greatest importance to the school.

An effective way to organize this information is to use it in identifying weaknesses in the school program. However, before this information is to be synthesized to indicate weaknesses, further information may be obtained by having community, faculty, and students rate the level of performance of current programs. These ratings may be secured by having community members rate each of the ranked goals by responding on a 15 point scale to the question: "In my opinion, how well are current programs meeting this goal?" [26]

The rating scale is as follows:

Extremely poor	Poor	Fair, but more needs to be done	Leave as is	Too much is being done
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8 9	10 11 12	13 14 15

Faculty and students are asked to rate the goals on the same scale responding to the question, "How well are my school's current programs meeting this goal?"

These ratings, together with information from the assessment of various needs and the identification of constraints can be used to identify weaknesses. The way in which a PACT and a high school faculty might synthesize these sources of data can be illustrated by considering a hypothetical case. Assume that one of the goals with a high ranking was "to produce employable citizens." At the same time it was discovered that the community, the faculty, and the students rated the achievement of this goal in the extremely poor or poor range (community 5, teachers 6, students 3). The needs assessment of the community showed that very few employment opportunities existed for students who had not finished high school and that approximately 30 percent of children in the high school age range were school dropouts.

[26] *Workshop Packet for Educational Goals and Objectives, op. cit.*

The needs assessment of the students showed that 40 percent of them felt the curriculum was not relevant, 49 percent found school "boring."

Given these facts, the PACT, working with the faculty, could focus its attention on the school dropout rate. This would lead to the discovery that approximately 35 percent of the children entering the ninth grade dropped out of school. The PACT and the faculty would then agree that the dropout rate should be reduced by approximately 5 percent a year over the next 5 years. To reach this goal will probably require some far-reaching changes in the curriculum and in teaching, as will be illustrated in the material that follows. It is important, therefore, that the PACT and the faculty focus their attention on only one or two such weaknesses in any year.

Determine Instructional Goals

As indicated earlier, individuals and/or groups who are to be held responsible and accountable should participate in the planning. This principle becomes so important in moving from the identification of weaknesses to the determination of instructional goals that it might well be restated: since a faculty will be held responsible and accountable for instructional goals, the faculty [27] should become the planning accountability team for these goals. This does not mean that PACT as the overall group has no role to play. The PACT would expect the faculty to identify instructional goals related directly to the problems identified by the PACT and the faculty.

The faculty, as it proceeds to determine instructional goals, will find a problem-solving approach useful. Experienced curriculum workers are familiar with the steps of analyzing the problem, and collecting data prior to determining the goals.[28] The use of the approach can be illustrated by considering the hypothetical problem of reducing the dropout rate.

The faculty as it approaches its task might phrase a question,

[27] The writers would assign an important role to students in any accountability program. As "consumers" of instructional plans, their insights would be especially helpful in determining instructional goals. Readers who share this view will want to read "faculty and students" whenever the word "faculty" appears in the subsequent material.

[28] For an explanation of a group problem-solving approach see: Arthur J. Lewis and Alice Miel. *Supervision for Improved Instruction*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1972. pp. 178-85.

"What can we do in the school to reduce the dropout rate?" Faculty members would begin their data collection by examining the results of the student needs assessment. They might wish to add to these data by interviewing students who had recently dropped out of school. They might also wish to study the cumulative record folders of dropouts.

From these data a picture of the "average dropout" might emerge. Let us assume that at the time of separation the typical dropout feels that school is of no value to him, that he does not feel a part of the school community in any way, and that he is discouraged because he is three or more years behind in his reading. At this point, the faculty members might see several ways in which they could modify the school program in order to help reduce the number of dropouts.

They could develop some new programs—for example, a distributive education program. They could work to make their existing courses more relevant to the needs of students. New types of "extracurricular" activities could be developed that might catch the interest of potential dropouts. A reading center could be established for remedial help, a developmental reading program could be instituted, teachers could incorporate the teaching of reading into all subject fields.

The preceding list is representative of possible solutions. The faculty then selects one, or a combination, of these solutions. Again, it is important to assign priorities. In doing this the faculty can ask, "Which of the possible solutions appears to have the greatest payoff?"

The solutions, in turn, need to be translated into one or more instructional goals; for example, to develop a distributive education program or to add auto mechanics.

A final step in goal determination is to identify performance and/or process criteria to be used in evaluation. A discussion of these criteria and their use is found on pp. 52-54.

Although the faculty has been given the major responsibility for identifying instructional goals, these goals should be discussed with and agreed to by the PACT.

As the PACT and the faculty seek a satisfactory understanding regarding instructional goals, they should consider the extent to which the proposed goals will overcome problems identified from the synthesis of the data gathered regarding needs, constraints, and goals.

IDENTIFY INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

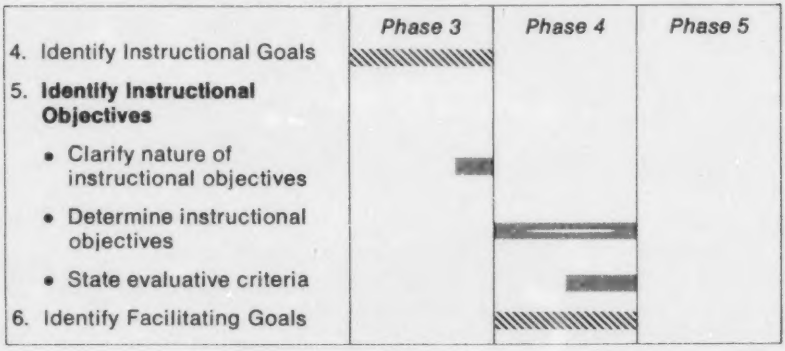

Figure 6.

The faculty, after agreeing with the PACT on instructional goals, is ready to move to the more specific task of setting instructional objectives. This is a time-consuming task and is to be performed by professional educators. As the faculty approaches this task, it should be aware of alternative procedures for organizing instruction and for writing instructional objectives.

Clarify Nature of Instructional Objectives

Stating instructional objectives is one step in the well established linear model for curriculum planning: state goals—state instructional objectives—plan and provide experiences to achieve the objectives—evaluate the outcomes. Such a model can become very restrictive, particularly so when the objectives are stated in behavioral terms. Problems arise when the ends dictate the nature of the means. An obvious example is "teaching for the tests." It might be argued that if the tests are good tests, there is nothing wrong with this. Agreed, if the purpose of education is to enable a person to pass a series of tests. However, if the purpose of education is to enhance the humanness of students, the *quality of the experience* in school becomes very important. Behavioral objectives have the effect of limiting the quality of experiences when they confuse means with ends.

Even if ends and means in a linear model are kept in proper perspective, the right of educators to prescribe ends, or goals, for students is being challenged. Gary Griffin, for instance, proposed

that there are those "who insist that it is *not* up to the school to be the active *initiating* object in the process of changing people, but that the school's proper, more humane if you will, role is to respond to the student as stimulus and release the role of initiation to the student."

Griffin concluded that, "Individuals are purposeful by nature and are able in varying degrees to articulate their own lives so that the school can work *with* them toward making those lives more as the individual wants them to be." [29]

One common feature of the linear model is stating objectives in behavioral terms. Arthur W. Combs, a critic of this procedure, pointed out that, "The general tendency of the behavioral objectives approach is to attempt to break behavior down into smaller and smaller fragments capable of more and more precise measurement. This attempt must be resisted, for the process of fractionation destroys the very goals sought. Intelligent behavior is a gestalt." [30] Combs argued for a "holistic approach" to goals, such as intelligent behavior. He recognized difficulties associated with assessment of such goals, but argued that goals should not be limited by man's present capability to make precise measurement.

Given the limitations associated with the stating of goals in a linear model, are there other models that may be used for curriculum planning and as a base for accountability? Alice Miel and one of the writers of this booklet proposed a designing process as an alternative to the linear model of curriculum planning.[31] In this designing process, curriculum is defined as "a set of intentions about opportunities for engagement of persons to be educated with other persons and with things" [32] and "instruction is taken to be the actual flow of engagements, by persons-being-educated, with other persons and things." [33]

In this nonlinear approach, teachers do not have to design objectives which have an exact specified outcome. Instead, an objective is stated so that its outcome is relative to the teaching process. That is, the teacher states an objective prior to the teach-

[29] Gary A. Griffin. "Needs Assessment as a Concealing Technology." *Educational Leadership* 30 (4): 325; January 1973.

[30] Arthur W. Combs. *Educational Accountability: Beyond Behavioral Objectives*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972. p. 12.

[31] Lewis and Miel, *op. cit.*, pp. 139-63.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 27.

[33] *Ibid.*, p. 29.

ing situation, but once the class begins the teacher lets the motivation of the students modify the manner of achieving it and the consequence of the objective. In this case a series of objectives is determined, each one based on the ongoing action of the classroom. However, in this approach, the teacher must constantly evaluate his daily objectives so that feedback is available and objectives can be modified and adjusted.

How could a school using this nonlinear approach be held accountable? Admittedly, accountability when it is restricted to measuring products can be more readily applied when outcomes or objectives are specified in advance, but such an approach is not always the best approach. Teachers using a nonlinear approach would need to reconstruct key events in the teaching process so that the process might be assessed. Such an assessment would incorporate measuring the objectives but go well beyond considering how well the ends have been achieved.

This explanation of how accountability might be applied in a school using a nonlinear approach is necessarily brief. Faculty groups interested in the approach will be engaged in some rather exciting pioneering work. However, those faculty groups deciding to stay with a linear model can improve their planning by applying two elements of the nonlinear approach. First, they should build in an opportunity for adjustment of goals as the year progresses to enable teachers to make some modification in the goals. It is reasonable to expect that appropriate records of such modifications will be available. Second, the objectives selected should deal with the affective as well as the cognitive goals. It is *not* necessary that all objectives be measured by tests considered to be objective. One must state objectives that are important and settle for the best available measures.

Determine Instructional Objectives

Faculty groups that have decided to write instructional objectives, rather than to use a nonlinear approach, will be ready to begin this writing once the instructional goals have been stated.[34] The

[34] Directions for writing instructional objectives are not given since they are readily available in a number of publications. See, for example: Hilda Taba. *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962. pp. 194-210; and Robert Mager. *Preparing Instructional Objectives.* Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962.

nature of these instructional goals may suggest natural groupings for task forces of teachers. For example, if one of the instructional goals is to organize a developmental reading class in a high school, teachers in the English Department might constitute a task force for determining instructional objectives.

As task forces translate instructional goals into more specific instructional objectives, they should rethink the instructional goals in terms of specific content and specific experiences in the curriculum. This translation process often involves two or more steps as illustrated by the following: [35]

Lifelong Objective: The student consistently will write grammatically correct prose in letters, memos, formal reports, and speeches, and in all other written communication in adult life.

End of Course Objective: By the end of the course, the student will write, in class, during a 45 minute test period, an error-free, 500-word autobiographical story on any assigned topic, such as "The Most Exciting Moment of My Life to Date."

Unit Objective: Mastery of the use of parts of speech and punctuation.

Specific Behavioral Objectives: Given a list of twenty adjectives, in random order, the student will correctly label each noun or adjective.

In translating this lifelong objective (goal) into specific content as represented by behavioral objectives some of the meaning may be lost for the learner. The specific behavioral objectives are certainly more "exact." However, in implementing these objectives the learner may not understand the "why." That is, "Why am I labeling nouns and adjectives? What does it mean? What difference does it make to me?" Although the answers may appear to be self-evident to the teacher, some understanding for the learner may be lost. Consequently, as instructional objectives become more specific in terms of learner performance, teachers must assume the responsibility for relating these objectives back to the instructional goals. If they do not, a great deal of the meaning will be lost in the process.

State Evaluative Criteria

As the faculty identifies instructional objectives they should also state criteria which can be used to determine when the objectives have been met. Two types of criteria may be stated depending

[35] L. Briggs. *Handbook of Procedures for the Design of Instruction.* Pittsburgh: American Institutes for Research, 1970. p. 21.

upon the nature of the objective. The first is a process criterion and can be used when exact outcomes are difficult to specify. Instead of specifying outcomes, therefore, the procedures or processes for implementing the objective are listed and the process criteria are met when all the conditions have been fulfilled. The assumption is that following the procedures will produce the desired result.

A process criterion can be used, for example, when a teacher plans to have children learn the concept of democratic ideals. In this case, the teacher would list the following class activities which would help children form the concept:

1. Describe the democratic concept
2. Contrast role playing of ideologies
3. Discuss role playing
4. Administer self check for children.

The process criterion will be met when the teacher has finished the activities. The process criterion, although inferential in terms of learning, can serve as a standard when it is impossible to use a performance criterion.

The second criterion is called a performance standard or criterion and is specified in terms of student performance. A performance criterion is similar to the familiar "how well" part of a behavioral objective. A performance criterion specifies the level of performance that students must reach to fulfill an objective. An example of a performance criterion would be: A student will be able to identify the nouns and verbs in ten sentences with 80 percent accuracy.

The use of performance criteria poses a problem of oversimplification. Any attempt to reduce ideas, thoughts, and actions to criteria which are very simple is often dangerous. Therefore, the process criteria can be used either in conjunction with or in place of performance criteria, when there is danger of oversimplifying an objective.

The following suggestions may be helpful to faculty groups as they are engaged in setting criteria:

1. Process and performance criteria should be used as appropriate to the objective.

2. Criteria should include an indication of the quality of the performance.

3. Performance standards should always be considered in light of what is logical and appropriate to growth potential at a given age.

4. Criteria should be modified if and when objectives are modified.

The stating of instructional objectives and the listing of performance and process criteria are functions of the faculty but are to be reviewed by the PACT. In such a review the PACT should ask two questions:

- Is it probable that the achievement of the instructional objectives will result in reaching the instructional goals that were agreed upon earlier?
- Is the PACT willing to accept the idea that reaching the stated performance and/or process criteria means that instructional objectives have been met and that the instructional goals have been met?

The PACT will need to press for satisfactory answers to these questions—otherwise they cannot honestly report on the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization.

IDENTIFY FACILITATING GOALS

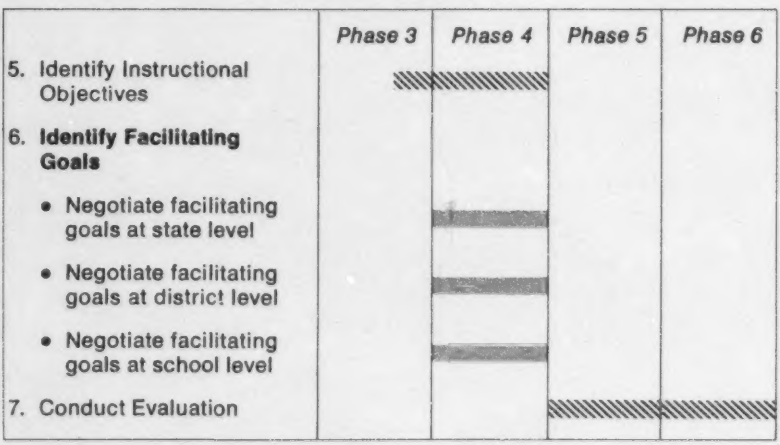
Phase 3
Phase 4
Phase 5
Phase 6
5. Identify Instructional Objectives
6. Identify Facilitating Goals
• Negotiate facilitating goals at state level
• Negotiate facilitating goals at district level
• Negotiate facilitating goals at school level
7. Conduct Evaluation

Figure 7.

A guideline for an effective accountability program is that any person or group influencing the nature of educational experiences should be accountable. In other words, if accountability is going to have any effect—if it is going to make any difference in the lives of children—it must be a two-way street. If teachers are to be held accountable for process and products in education, *then those who control the inputs, or resources, that teachers need should also be held accountable*. This "reciprocal accountability" is one important feature of the PACT approach.

But how does "reciprocal accountability" get translated into practice? In the PACT approach this is through the use of facilitating goals—that is, through enabling goals that need to be achieved in order for the staff to reach an instructional goal. The PACT will use the same approach in reporting on facilitating goals as for instructional goals—that is, reporting on the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization.

The procedure for reporting on accountability provides the PACT with a direction for its work. Since the goals are to be "agreed upon," the PACT must reach a satisfactory understanding with individuals or groups who will be responsible for achieving the goals.

Agreements will need to be made regarding the nature of the facilitating goals, the responsibility for their achievement, and the basis for judging when the goal has been reached.

It may, ordinarily, be difficult to agree upon facilitating goals with some groups or individuals who control their realization. For example, it may be difficult to get the board of education to agree on the need for teacher aides. However, the PACT may be able to negotiate such agreement. With community membership and understanding, the PACT can be much more vocal than teachers. (When teachers have attempted to secure needed resources, their attempts often have been labeled as self-serving.) Further, with appropriate ties to the community power structure, a PACT can be persuasive. Yet, what if no agreement can be reached on a facilitating goal? Then, at least, the PACT can report that problems exist that are preventing teachers from achieving their instructional goals.

As indicated earlier, schools are influenced by an interacting network of systems—state, district, and local school. Accordingly, functionaries operating at each of these levels do affect the outcomes of education and should be held accountable for achieving facilitating goals.

The following discussion will provide illustrations and examples of facilitating goals that may occur at the state level, the district level, and the school level.

Negotiate Facilitating Goals at the State Level

There are factors under the control of the state which directly affect the outcomes of instructional goals—for example, state laws, state department regulations, and financial support for education. As the PACT identifies facilitating goals associated with one or more of these areas, it will need to work with appropriate individuals or groups at the state level. The PACT should avoid the hazard of working on too many facilitating goals at the state level and should concentrate on one or two specific problems.

Assume, for example, that the faculty and PACT have identified a problem associated with the following instructional goal—to improve the education of young children by beginning a pre-kindergarten program for four-year-olds. However, there is a state regulation prohibiting children from entering school until the age of five. The PACT would like to see this regulation changed to permit children to attend school at the age of four years. The PACT would then identify individuals who could influence the changing of this regulation: state officials, legislators, businessmen, school board members, and school officials. A meeting of these individuals would be held, at which time the PACT would present a "fact sheet" indicating the need for a change in the regulation.

Agreement on a goal to make necessary changes in the legislation would be sought, and if secured, responsibility would be given to an action committee. The facilitating goal would be evaluated in terms of whether or not the regulation is changed.

Negotiate Facilitating Goals at the District Level

District-wide resources are generally under the control of the central office staff operating under the general direction of the superintendent, who, in turn, is guided by policies set by the board of education. Accordingly, the PACT will need to work cooperatively with these individuals in order to realize district-level facilitating goals. The PACT will be in a better position to negotiate

these facilitating goals if, from the outset, the team has established a cooperative relationship with central office personnel. The basis for cooperation is quite clear; there is a shared commitment to providing quality education.

Cooperation could be enhanced by inviting a member of the central office staff to serve as a member of the PACT. In addition, the PACT could use one or more members from the central office as consultants to assist the team with procedural and substantive questions.

Through these efforts the PACT is establishing the basis for reciprocal accountability between the school and the school system. The faculty, in agreeing to its responsibility for instructional goals, is asking the school district to be responsible for providing needed resources, necessary support services, and appropriate system-wide policies. A brief review of the nature of the school district's responsibilities may assist the PACT in identifying facilitating goals.

The district is responsible for allocating such resources as personnel, materials, equipment, and money. The facilitation of one or more instructional goals could necessitate a reallocation of these resources. In some instances, the PACT may find that it is desirable to give the local school more control over a resource in order to achieve an instructional goal. For example, instead of requiring that "textbook money" be spent only on books appearing on an approved list, schools might be given the freedom to use these funds for purchasing books, other than textbooks, to implement an individualized reading program.

An important resource for teachers in achieving instructional goals is appropriate support services. Some of these support services are indirectly related to instructional goals. These would include the provision of specialized personnel, such as psychologists and speech therapists, and activities in which cooperative effort saves time and money, such as centralized purchasing. Other support services are more directly related to the curriculum, such as the provision of supervisory personnel, educational radio and television broadcasts, test scoring services, and an outdoor education facility.

A host of system-wide policies, that include regulations such as entry-age in kindergarten, length of the school day and school year, bus schedules, and arrangement of teacher time for planning, also affect instructional goals and objectives. For a given instructional goal, the PACT might find it necessary to work for the modification of one or more policies dealing with such areas as:

- Textbook selection
- Curriculum guides
- *Time allocated to subjects*
- Teaching methods
- Testing
- Pupil grading.

Without belaboring the obvious, if central office personnel responsible for these policies have helped the PACT and the faculty to identify their instructional goals, half the battle has been won!

An illustration of a facilitating goal at the district level has to do with allocation of staff resources. Assume that the faculty, working with the PACT, determines that differentiated staffing is needed to implement an instructional goal. A representative of the PACT and the principal meet with the superintendent and the director of personnel. In this meeting they seek the development of a new policy that will give the local school more freedom in determining the type of staff to be hired. At the end of the meeting they agree that the personnel director will work with the principal in establishing a new policy to be submitted to the board of education. There has been agreement on a goal and a fixing of responsibility for its realization.

Negotiate Facilitating Goals at the School Level

As the faculty members identify instructional goals, or more specific instructional objectives, they may discover the need for changes within their own school; that is, facilitating goals may need to be negotiated. These goals may be related to three general topics—instructional organization, learning resources, and building and equipment.

After identifying one or more instructional goals, the faculty and the PACT may decide that the existing instructional organization needs to be changed. The adoption of an organizational change as a facilitating goal should be undertaken with care. Many efforts to change existing instructional organizations have proven of little or no value. Sometimes these organizations were adopted for purposes of public relations; other times, unanticipated consequences associated with the organizational change have negated its value. The faculty and the PACT, considering a change in instructional organization, should make certain that the change will enable

them better to meet their instructional goals and should attempt to anticipate all of the consequences.

The PACT and the faculty may also find that improved procedures for making resources available are needed in order to realize instructional goals. This finding may result in a need for facilitating goals. Some of these goals could be simple to achieve—for example, to arrange for an exchange of textbooks between classes or to secure supplies on short notice. Other facilitating goals may be more complex, such as the establishment of a learning resource center.

Modifications may be needed in the school building in order to facilitate the achievement of instructional goals. For example, creating a new learning resource center may necessitate some basic modifications in the building. To achieve such a facilitating goal will generally require the support and cooperation of the school district administration.

In considering facilitating goals related to buildings, a word of caution is in order. An analysis of building needs can lead to a disheartened faculty—producing attitudes expressed by such statements as "We can't possibly have a good program in this environment." To avoid such attitudes the faculty should work with the PACT in realistically attempting to change the environment even though this may be only a modest type of rehabilitation and some fresh paint.

A facilitating goal at the school level might be illustrated by the establishment of a learning resource center. Assume that the faculty determines that such a center is needed in order to achieve an instructional goal associated with independent learning. The PACT could ask the principal, the school librarian, the director of the school district media center, two teachers, and two citizens to form a task force for achieving this goal. The task force would prepare a recommendation for a learning resource center, secure the necessary approvals, and work with appropriate individuals until the center was a reality.

In considering the discussion of facilitating goals, whether at the state, district, or local level, the PACT should avoid the problem of confusing ends and means. It would be easy for the PACT to become so preoccupied with achieving facilitating goals that it would lose sight of the instructional goals. There will be no dearth of possible facilitating goals, and yet achieving such goals is only the means to the end of better instruction. Facilitating goals should not become ends in themselves.

CONDUCT EVALUATION

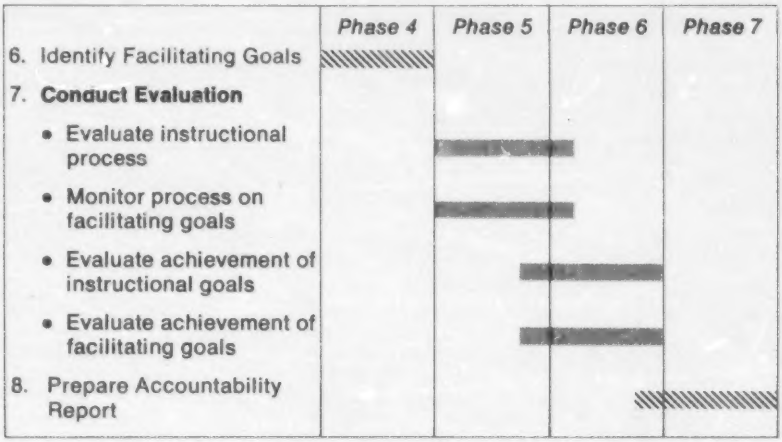

Figure 8.

Evaluation is a necessary step to enable the Planning Accountability Team (PACT) to report upon the correspondence between goals and their outcomes. However, as indicated in Section II, accountability should be measured in terms of the processes as well as the outcomes of education. Accordingly, suggestions are offered for evaluating process as well as outcomes.

Evaluate Instructional Process

As indicated previously, to focus accountability exclusively on the outcomes may prove dysfunctional. If the press to achieve products becomes so great that students and teachers begin to operate in a climate of fear and conformity, their productivity will decrease. But this is not the most important reason for being concerned with the quality of students' experiences in school. Children are people, school is not preparation for life, *it is life*. The quality of a child's experience in school may be as vital to him as any he will ever have. Since the quality of a child's experience is vital, regardless of teacher goals, it becomes important to measure the process independent of instructional goals or objectives.

One way to evaluate the quality of a child's experience in school is to study his attitudes toward the curriculum, toward learning, toward the school, and toward himself. To study these attitudes

the PACT and the faculty might wish to supplement questions asked in the needs assessment (see pp. 38-43) with such questions as:

1. Do students perceive the curriculum as being valuable?
2. Are students motivated to learn because of some intrinsic satisfaction derived from learning? Or are they motivated by external rewards?
3. Are students' attitudes toward learning negative?
4. Do students feel able to cope with tasks presented in school or have they resigned themselves to become a part of a syndrome of failure?
5. Does attendance at school enhance or detract from students' self images?

Answers to these questions will vary from student to student. However, securing a "periodic reading" through the use of such questions would provide valuable information regarding the process of instruction.

Another way to evaluate the process of education is to examine the interaction of students and teachers in the classroom. Recent systematic observation methods such as the Reciprocal Category System (RCS), Florida Climate and Control System (FLACCS), Teachers Practice Observation System (TPOS), Interaction Analysis (IA), and the Peer Panel Portfolio (PPP) are tools to help the classroom teacher analyze his own process-oriented strategies and the behavior of his students.[36]

Whereas earlier rating systems of teacher behavior in the classroom required the observer to make general statements, the more recent observational systems focus on precise descriptions. Because of this orientation toward specific behavior, the instruments require relatively "low inference." Most of the 75 "low inference" systems which now exist for classifying classroom interaction contain such information as (a) amount of talking, (b) extent of group participation, (c) the emotional climate of the classroom, (d) the kind of thinking that is most evident, and (e) the changes which occur in verbal behavior under different circumstances.[37]

[36] For a description of various systematic observation procedures and their use, see: C. W. Beegle and R. M. Brant, editors. *Observational Methods in the Classroom*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1973.

[37] J. D. Neil. *Toward Accountable Teachers*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971. p. 65.

Many of these "low inference" systems have been cataloged by Simon and Boyer (1967-1970).[38]

An evaluation of the process of education, as provided through systematic observation of classroom interaction, has value in that it supplies feedback to teachers as a basis for their improvement. Such feedback may also be provided as teams of teachers cooperate in evaluating the process of instruction in each others' classrooms. These teams of four teachers work together over a time cycle—for example, a two week period, four times a year. Each member of the team revolves through four roles during a cycle: teacher, observer of teacher behavior, observer of student behavior, and data analyst. The following functions are performed in the four roles:

1. Teacher—teach.
2. Observer of teacher behavior
   a. Describe nonverbal behaviors—smiles, frowns, touches, gestures, and voice levels.
   b. Give examples of phrases and patterns of verbal responses.
   c. Make a log of the instruction and strategy.
3. Observer of student behavior
   a. Record activities during lessons.
   b. Describe pupil affective, verbal, and nonverbal behaviors.
   c. Describe specific activities when pupils practice tasks.
4. Data analyst—organize report in a coherent manner.

In a post conference, the teacher shares his own expectations and analysis of the lesson. Team members then present feedback to the teacher (feedback is descriptive in nature, rather than interpretive). The teacher and the team decide on new strategies and teaching responses which will improve the teaching-learning situation. The cycle then continues as the roles shift.

At the end of a cycle, several purposes should have been accomplished. The teacher and the team have developed skill in self evaluation and critical analysis. And the team has helped each teacher identify specific strengths and weaknesses. Together they have arrived at new direction and next steps. If a PACT, through

[38] A. Simon and G. Boyer, editors. *Mirrors for Behavior: An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments.* 14 Volumes. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1967-1970.

planning process evaluation, can stimulate the effective operation of such teacher teams, then the team will have made an important contribution.

Monitor Process on Facilitating Goals

The process, or procedures, followed in achieving the facilitating goals need to be monitored to assure that adequate progress is being made and to make necessary shifts in strategy if necessary. The monitoring may also reveal that some facilitating goals may need to be modified. For example, the PACT may find that what it had assumed was a school board rule it wished to have changed was a state law—and it would need to modify its goal accordingly.

One way to monitor the procedures is to review periodic reports from individuals responsible for achieving various goals. These reports might then be filed and become a part of a log of PACT activities.

Monitoring the process may periodically reveal that problem areas are developing. A PACT, for example, may find itself inadvertently moving into a strained relationship with the central office. The central office, for instance, may refuse to change a policy requiring the use of standardized tests, a policy that the PACT believes is detrimental to achieving one of its instructional goals. As it reacts, the PACT should remember that good education comes first. Thus, before PACT takes an opposing position, it must predict whether the *total effect* of its actions will promote or hinder good education. The PACT must also be clear that its motives are honest, that the reason for taking an opposing position is to promote good education rather than to further the political or other personal ambitions of members of the group.

If the PACT adopts a view in opposition to that of the central office, the principal may find himself caught in the middle of a conflict situation. Does his loyalty belong to the central office or to his local PACT? It seems clear that a principal will need to support the PACT providing it is working for good education. A recent research study found that effective principals are willing to stand up against the hierarchy—that their first loyalties are to their schools and their communities.[39] This fact may comfort the principal as he seeks his next job. On a more serious note, able

[39] G. L. Becker *et al. Elementary School Principals.* Eugene: University of Oregon Press, 1971.

central office administrators will recognize the long-range value to a school and a school system of a principal who fights for quality education for students. Such administrators are worth their salt.

Evaluate Achievement of Instructional Goals

Evaluation of the achievement of instructional goals is a necessary part of the PACT program. However, the purposes of an evaluation program in a school are much broader than meeting the needs of the PACT. The evaluation program should provide feedback information to the faculty about their objectives and their instructional strategies. Proper feedback about objectives can systematically be obtained in a three step procedure:

1. Describe outcomes which represent achievement about objectives
2. Specify and apply appropriate evaluation methods
3. Use available evidence to make judgments about the progress of students and needed modifications of the curriculum and teaching processes.

To describe outcomes—the first step in the evaluation procedure—is to specify the behaviors, attitudes, values, and skills which the learner should possess at the end of the teaching process. In many instances, the outcomes described will be comparable to, or a modification of, the behaviors originally specified in the objectives. However, as is often true, the teacher who is concerned with the higher mental processes, such as thinking, social attitudes, aesthetic development, and moral values cannot specify the outcome in behavioral terms—either in the objective or in the evaluation. In these instances, it may be necessary to rely on process criteria rather than performance criteria.

Outcomes are generally collected through objectively scored tests or teacher-made tests. These methods are appropriate for cognitive objectives; however, a large number of objectives are not cognitive. Evidence about noncognitive change may be collected through attitude scales, social class inventories, tape recordings, sociograms, questionnaires, performance tests, anecdotal records, autobiographical logs, behavior checklists, essays, and other written material.

An evaluation method will be more effective if it has four characteristics: consistency, comprehensiveness, validity, and parsimony. An evaluation method is consistent if it logically relates

to the objective. For example, an objective which stresses divergent thinking should be evaluated by a procedure which requires divergent thinking. An evaluation method is comprehensive if it provides information about the total range of objectives. Similarly, an evaluation method is valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure.

And finally, an evaluation method is parsimonious if it does not become a burden on the user by providing an overload of information.

Evaluation, if it is serving its purpose as feedback, should enable a teacher to make judgments about the progress of students, the curriculum, and teaching methods.[40] However, it may not serve these purposes if the teacher and the PACT become preoccupied with the results and do not relate these outcomes to appropriate changes in the curriculum and in the teaching process. At the same time, the PACT needs to keep relating evaluation activity to accountability. The PACT's task is to keep asking: Are the evaluation results showing whether or not we are meeting our instructional goals?

Evaluate Achievement of Facilitating Goals

Whereas the evaluation of instructional goals was primarily a responsibility of the faculty, evaluation of facilitating goals is a function of the PACT. As part of the identification of facilitating goals, the PACT should have stated and made public the performance criteria.

The chief source of evidence will be the observation of the congruence between agreed upon goals and their realization. Interviews and questionnaires could be used to supplement direct observation. For example, assume that the community assessment showed that 43 percent of the public responded affirmatively to the question: Do you feel informed about what is happening in Riverview School? The PACT might have instituted a public information program with a goal of increasing the percentage of affirmative responses from 43 to 75 percent. The achievement of this goal could be evaluated by administering the questionnaire for a second time.

In the real world of public schools it will prove difficult to

[40] For a description of procedures to follow see: Fred T. Wilhelms, editor. *Evaluation as Feedback and Guide*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967.

realize all of the facilitating goals. When the goals are not realized, evaluation should show the extent to which they have been accomplished and indicate reasons for failure to achieve them. As a result, it will be possible to make appropriate modifications in the goals and in the strategy for their achievement. This will become an important part of the PACT report.

As an illustration, assume that it was not possible to establish a new policy giving the local school freedom in determining the type of staff to be hired. The reason for the failure was that the local teacher association opposed the idea on the grounds that teachers' rights might be violated. As a result, the PACT might decide to work with the teacher association in order to explain the reasons for such a change and to secure the association's assistance in drafting a new policy that would protect the rights of teachers.

PREPARE ACCOUNTABILITY REPORT

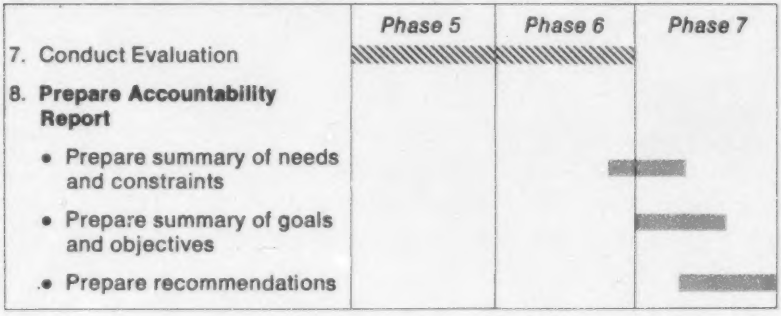

Figure 9.

At the end of each year, the Planning Accountability Team (PACT) is responsible for preparing the final report to the community, the board of education, and the superintendent of schools. This report summarizes the material from steps two through seven of the accountability plan.[41] The following proposed outline for the accountability report provides a summary of the activities of the PACT.

[41] As indicated in the introduction to Section III, the first cycle of the PACT operation might require two years. In this event, the first and second annual reports would be modified accordingly.

Prepare Summary of Needs and Constraints

This section contains a summary of community and school characteristics identified in steps two and three of the accountability plan—assess needs and identify constraints. The PACT has collected considerable information regarding the community and the school.

Only the important findings that affected the further work of the PACT in identifying instructional and facilitating goals and in evaluating these goals need to be reported. These findings should include the ranking of school goals and the PACT's analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the school and of the constraints operating at the local, county, and state level. The first section could also include any necessary updating of information such as major changes in the community that occurred after the completion of the needs assessment.

In this first section of the report, a statement of problems encountered by the PACT could also be included. The material collected in monitoring the process of achieving facilitating goals will be helpful in preparing this statement. One type of problem encountered might be related to unrealistic expectations by the PACT that might have led to adopting too many instructional and facilitating goals. Another type of problem might have been a misunderstanding by the faculty, or other group, on the role of the PACT. The report could then indicate how this misunderstanding was overcome.

Prepare Summary of Goals and Objectives

One function of the end of year report is to document the progress made toward established goals and objectives. Although a school may not have reached all of their goals and objectives, the PACT will have evidence available which will help the faculty make better decisions about the school program the following year.

The writing of the report by the PACT members should provide adequate information for decision making by the faculty. At the same time the report should not be a burden or so detailed as to obscure its purpose.

In this section, for instance, the writing of the goals and objectives could include the following elements:

1. Statement of instructional goals
2. Brief outline of the supporting objectives

3. Results of evaluation of objectives including procedures used

4. Evidence of realization of instructional goals

5. Conclusion which states how closely the goals were achieved.

To prepare the report on this section, the PACT collects data from the faculty members who have been implementing and assessing objectives for a full year. How these data are collected will directly influence the attitudes that faculty members have toward accountability. The writers believe that accountability can become a positive or a negative force depending primarily on whether it unites faculty members through cooperation or divides them by competition. Accordingly, it is proposed that data on achievement of instructional goals and objectives be collected from teams of teachers wherever appropriate.

Each of the instructional objectives will have a range of sub-objectives, and PACT will have to relate these objectives to the overall instructional goals. A possible method of collecting the needed data would be for teams to keep logs and records which contain information about processes and outcomes. Again, the record keeping should not overshadow the task of helping children to learn.

The PACT should report on the monitoring of the process of instruction in this section. This should include the procedures used in studying the effect of the instructional process on students (their attitudes, etc.), the interaction of students and teachers, and teaching strategies in the classroom. Highlights of the findings from such studies should also be presented. The records and logs which the teams keep could be used by the teams in making judgments about the teaching process.

A comprehensive accountability plan should be concerned with inputs as well as products and process. The PACT approach provides for accountability for inputs through facilitating goals. The achievement of facilitating goals could be outlined in the PACT report as follows:

Description of facilitating goal

Name of persons or group responsible

Evidence of achievement.

It is recognized that the PACT will need to make some subjective judgments in reporting on the achievement of facilitating

goals. Making public the criteria used in arriving at these judgments will increase the value of the report and will help to sustain the PACT's credibility.

Prepare Recommendations

This section provides a summary and analysis of the instructional and facilitating goals. The previous section briefly outlined conclusions regarding these goals; while this section specifies reasons, when possible, for not realizing the goals. An analysis of these reasons would then provide a basis for new recommendations. These recommendations could propose alternative goals and procedures and identify possible sources of additional assistance. Thus the report becomes a vital part of the cyclical process of setting goals, working for their achievement, assessing their achievement, setting new goals, and so on. In these instances, the recommendations become guides for program planning.

Conclusion

THE PLANNING ACCOUNTABILITY TEAM (PACT) approach to accountability described in this booklet is designed to improve the quality of education and at the same time increase public confidence in the schools. This increased confidence can be expressed in action programs as PACT identifies changes to be sought by cooperative action of professional and lay personnel. Some may even come to believe that PACT is an acronym for Political Action Team.

The approach can gain the confidence and support of professional as well as lay personnel. Professional educators will recognize the inherent fairness of this approach, as contrasted with an approach decreed from some external source with no provision for reciprocal responsibility and accountability. Further, professional educators will recognize the value of this approach in providing the types of data needed to improve programs and the potential for generating public support for the needed changes.

Can this approach succeed? It is recognized that although there are some familiar elements in the plan, it is essentially new. As such, the plan can be improved with practice. For this to happen, procedures need to be established to share successes and failures in using the plan. A variety of applications of the plan might also be tried. For example, a school could start on a relatively small scale. The Planning Accountability Team (PACT) might include only one parent and one student during the first year—other parents, community leaders, and students could serve as members of *ad hoc* task forces working on specific goals. A school might focus its efforts the first year on only two or three goals, for example, improving skills in reading and helping children to improve their self-concept.

To initiate a PACT plan, it will be necessary for professionals in the school and school system to develop broad understanding of

the nature and promise of such an approach. Given this understanding, professionals will be able to develop a program of communication with the public. It will be particularly important to help boards of education and legislators understand and accept the principles behind the approach. However, understanding is not enough. If this plan is to be successful it will be necessary for the public and for professionals to agree on its use as a method of accountability. Both moral and financial support will be needed for the success of a PACT approach.

One condition for success will be support from curriculum and supervisory personnel. Their skill and knowledge coupled with their ability to work effectively with people will be important ingredients in a PACT approach. Fortunately, this is one approach to accountability that curriculum and supervisory workers can believe in and conscientiously support for it holds the promise for better education.

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